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VOLUME XXVIII

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IT'S TIME TO ASK SOME QUESTIONS	<i>Edmund J. Gleazer, Jr.</i>	123
JUNIOR COLLEGES IN HIGHER EDUCATION	<i>Frank B. Lindsay</i>	125
A STUDY IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF ATTITUDES IN A GENERAL EDUCATION PHYSICAL SCIENCE COURSE	<i>William I. Moore and Leon N. Henderson</i>	132
THE ROLE OF THE LANGUAGE CLUB IN A COMMUNITY COLLEGE	<i>Hilde Jaeckel</i>	137
A SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE ON THE JUNIOR COLLEGE LIBRARY	<i>Sister Carlos Maria Müller, R.S.M.</i>	139
EMPLOYERS LOOK AT THE JUNIOR COLLEGE GRADUATE	<i>Johns H. Harrington</i>	147
EXPERIENCING WESTERN CIVILIZATION	<i>Leo Trepp</i>	150
A COMPARISON OF STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT IN OFFICE MACHINE CLASSES MEETING DAILY AND THREE TIMES WEEKLY	<i>Kurt Weingarten</i>	156
CAMPUS MARRIAGES—ARE THEY PRACTICABLE?	<i>Lester A. Kirkendall</i>	160
CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED OF INTEREST TO JUNIOR COLLEGE READERS		163
FROM THE EXECUTIVE SECRETARY'S DESK	<i>Jesse P. Bogue</i>	169
THE JUNIOR COLLEGE WORLD	<i>Jesse P. Bogue</i>	174
RECENT WRITINGS JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS		180

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JUNIOR COLLEGE JOURNAL

VOLUME XXVIII

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It's Time to Ask Some Questions

EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR.

THERE ARE many indications that the junior college will have a role of growing importance in America during the decade ahead. Every state study of higher education completed within the last few years has assigned a position of significance to the two-year college. Testimony of supplementary interest is found in the June 14, 1957, issue of *United States News and World Report*. Of the 138 presidents of colleges and universities reporting on their views of the "crisis in the colleges," one-third recommended the establishment of more junior colleges.

The *Second Report to the President* of the President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School included a similar view:

Communities or groups of neighboring communities faced with an impending shortage of higher educational capacity will do well to consider new 2-year community colleges as part of the solution. Experience in a number of areas has demonstrated that, with carefully planned facilities and programs, community colleges can be highly effective in affording readily available opportunities for excellent education beyond the high school.

Rapid growth in junior college enrollments and in the development of new

institutions appears very likely. Some fifty to sixty new community colleges have either been authorized already by the voters and responsible agencies or are in process of such authorization. These institutions will be opening their doors to thousands of college students during the next two years. Those persons in this country who have felt that there was something basically sound about the junior college concept must look upon these developments with great satisfaction.

However, in the growing acceptance of the junior college there are elements of grave danger to the movement and to the needs of society it would serve unless there is also growing understanding of the values and the limitations of the two-year institution. Some straws in the wind are already evident.

1. More and more students of the junior college are taking university-parallel work.

2. Students enroll in such majors as engineering and agriculture with the intention of transferring to four-year institutions and drop out of junior college if they cannot meet requirements rather than take the two-year vocational-technical type of curriculum.

3. Comments have been made which indicate danger of the two-year institution becoming in effect a "prep" school for the upper division of four-year institutions.

EDMUND J. GLEAZER, JR. is President of Graceland College, Lamon, Iowa, and also President of the American Association of Junior Colleges.

The President's Committee was aware of these factors. It emphasized the necessity for two-year colleges to meet the varied educational needs of our youth.

Community colleges are not designed, however, merely to relieve enrollment pressures on senior institutions. They have a role and an integrity of their own. They are designed to help extend and equalize opportunities to those who are competent and who otherwise would not attend college, and to present a diversity of general and specialized programs to meet the needs of diversified talents and career goals.

Community colleges have a "role and an integrity of their own." Surely indiscriminate multiplication of two-year colleges uncertain in objectives and purpose would be most unfortunate. Is there not the necessity, as we enter into a period of great change, to ask ourselves some searching questions? Questions of this type ought to be asked so that there will be a clearer understanding of the unique functions of this type of college not only by the American public but by those professionally engaged in the field.

1. Is the nation moving toward the time when the majority of college students will take the thirteenth and fourteenth years in the junior or community college?
2. Is the first two-year period following high school an educational unit with definable characteristics and peculiar needs?
3. Does the junior college possess "unique" values as related to other areas of post-high school education?
4. What are limitations of the two-year college concept?

5. Is there a philosophy undergirding the two-year college idea which ought to be explicitly stated and which could provide helpful guidelines in the establishment and operation of these institutions?
6. Is the junior college experimenting and evaluating in such ways as to contribute to the general advancement of higher education?
7. What is the role of the community college in furthering opportunities for lifelong education?
8. Why are vocational-technical courses relatively unpopular?

Time passes; social evolution continues; and problems change in character. The critical issues before the United States are not the same today as they were in the century of westward expansion. And so it is with the junior college. Public acceptance has been a major problem. However, it is diminishing in proportionate importance to the need for understanding. In every junior college in the land and in every community planning a college there ought to be asked this basic question: Exactly what is it that we want this college to do? And nationally it would be of great consequence, in the writer's estimation, if a small conference were convened to examine the problems sketched above. Personnel from the junior college field, secondary education, the universities, and a few other thoughtful people with interests in this area of education could make a timely and constructive contribution to American education at a time when it would count.

Junior Colleges in Higher Education*

FRANK B. LINDSAY

I APPRECIATE very much the invitation extended to me by President Ward Austin to participate in the dedication of this addition to the campus of the College of Marin because A. C. Olney, the man for whom the building is named, was so closely identified for many years with the same concerns for education which I have shared during my own years of service in California. I came to a California junior college as instructor at the time when A. C. Olney was president of the then newly-founded State Junior College Federation. I knew him first as a wise and far-sighted leader of our vigorous, yet still youthful, junior college movement. Over the years I came to hold him in increased respect as I received and followed his guidance in maturing my convictions about the mission of junior colleges. When in 1938 I came to the State Department of Education, I learned that Mr. Olney had served as chief for secondary education from 1919 until he assumed the presidency of this College of Marin. Again, we may note that he had established a pattern of service to junior colleges which it has been my privilege to try to maintain and extend.

Since 1943 FRANK B. LINDSAY has been Chief, Bureau of Secondary Education, California State Department of Education, Sacramento. He has authored many articles that have appeared in the *California Journal of Secondary Education* and other educational journals.

My principal pleasure in this present assignment, of course, derives from the occasion it gives us to review together the position already achieved by junior colleges as institutions of higher education in California and to forecast the areas of service we may confidently expect to occupy in the decade ahead. In California, as we well know, junior colleges already are recognized by the Board of Regents of the University of California and the State Board of Education as full partners with the University and state colleges in conduct of the enterprise of higher education. A brief glance at current figures of enrollment makes this very clear.

In the 1955-1956 college year, junior colleges accommodated three-fifths of the 117,201 full-time students (that is, students enrolled for 12 units or more) in freshman and sophomore years at all higher institutions in California. The University of California on its various campuses accounted for one-ninth; the state colleges, one-eighth; and the private colleges and universities, one-sixth.

Over the five-year period, 1951-1955, a study made by the Office of Relations with Schools, University of California, shows that the junior colleges graduated 50,000 students, of whom a quarter continued their education at the University—

* This speech was prepared for the dedication of the A. C. Olney Building, College of Marin, Kentfield, California.

at Berkeley, Davis, Los Angeles, Riverside, and Santa Barbara. Comparison was made of the academic performance of these junior college transfers with that of the "native" students (that is, those who entered the University as freshmen). The report of the Office of Relations with Schools shows that junior college transfers, who at the time they enrolled at junior college were eligible as high school graduates for admission to the University, completed their fourth or senior year in the same proportion (77.9 per cent) as students who originally entered the University as freshmen. As a group they even achieved a slightly higher grade-point average over-all—1.80 as compared with 1.73 for the corresponding group of native students. Clearly the junior colleges as a whole are providing satisfactory preparation for upper division studies and do equally as good a job as the University does through its lower division in the instance of students who as high school graduates could have entered the University had they so selected.

The study further makes clear the services junior colleges render many young people who at the time of graduation from high school could not have obtained admission to the University. Upon graduation from junior college, many of these students also transferred to a campus of the University. Five-sixths of this group completed the senior year in the normal time. Their composite grade-point average of 1.59 was well below that of their fellow students, to be sure, but nevertheless they were graduated by the University. Thus, the figures show that junior colleges do a competent job of salvaging and rehabilitating many late-maturing students for academic achievement. In

this time of major manpower shortages in many fields of intellectual and technical endeavor, the junior colleges have magnificently demonstrated their capacity to conserve the all too limited human resources of the nation and to enable good minds to overcome the impediments imposed through adolescent apathy or inability to settle early upon an occupational goal.

With this assurance, junior colleges may expect to be asked to perform an even larger share of lower division instruction in the future. The high schools of the state graduated 98,000 students in 1955-1956. The projections of the State Department of Finance, corrected this year in the light of numbers of pupils already in elementary and secondary schools, conservatively estimate that by 1970 the number of high school graduates will have grown to 257,000, an increase of 162 per cent. To localize the increases, during the past five years the numbers of high school graduates have increased by 29 per cent in Marin County alone and by 14 per cent in neighboring Sonoma County, not to mention a 38 per cent increase experienced by Contra Costa County just across the Bay. The projections of the State Department of Finance to 1970 forecast increase over 1956 in the percentage of high school graduates as 262 per cent for Marin County alone.

Let us not deplore the superabundance of students shortly to be thrust upon the junior colleges because of the serious problems of housing and staff to be imposed upon the districts. Rather let us rejoice in the opportunity presented junior colleges to continue to demonstrate their potential for offering superior instruction. It is in order, however, to spend a few minutes in

reviewing the purposes of junior colleges upon which they must justify their right to a greatly increased share in funds from state apportionments through more liberal legislative action as well as to the continued support of their local districts.

College of Marin is an example of a junior college which represents a pattern that might well be adopted statewide. In the first place, it is administered by its own independent board of trustees whose sole preoccupation is to provide an offering of services responsive to and appropriate for the people of its district. The district does not have to submit its every decision about curriculum to any bureaucratic agency nor battle for budget items in competition with its fellow institutions before a legislature. The administration can give a major portion of its attention to assembling a corps of master teachers to maintain College of Marin as the center of learning which is the primary mission of junior college education. Junior college gives scope and recognition to the capabilities and contributions of great teachers. Its students are not compelled to endure compulsory attendance; it has no custodial function; it must insist seriously and steadfastly that its students demonstrate their right to enjoy the privileges of higher education.

Clearly to see the significance of the junior college for its students and for the nation as a whole, it is important to notice two serious misconceptions about the junior college which have sometimes in the past misled the public. When people come face to face with a new event or an unfamiliar institution, it is only natural that they will try to relate it to matters to which they are accustomed. During the half century of the existence and phe-

nomenal growth of the junior college some persons have tended to discredit the institution by one or another of mistaken identifications.

There have been those who have spoken of the junior college as a post graduate department of high school. They have said in effect that junior college is all very well for over-age students who want to keep on hanging around after graduation in order to pick up some further crumbs of information. The implication of these misguided critics is that junior college is, in their words, "nothing but a glorified high school" after all and therefore, in their opinion, a mere purveyor of superficial common learnings.

This is not the occasion upon which to review in detail the origins of junior colleges in the several states nor is there time to recite the avowed purposes of the founders of the junior college movement. In terms of the mission of the junior college as accepted and practiced presently, however, the appellation of a "glorified high school" is seen to be as uncalled for as it is untrue.

Nevertheless, it is pertinent to inquire of those who would insist that junior college is only an upward extension of the American high school, *What is wrong with that?* The American public high school is an instrument devised by the American people to express their profound conviction that government by means of democratically elected representatives requires that every young person have the opportunity to acquire basic skills of communication with his fellows and to gain practice in the exercise of intelligent discrimination of the sources of information and its significance.

The American high school is not an

imitation of the *gymnasium* or other European secondary school nor was it ever intended to be. High school in the United States has had four objectives for instruction. Its first responsibility has always been to build an enlightened citizenry acquainted with the value system of American democracy and habituated to operation of the democratic process. High school's second obligation has been to bring national unity out of the diversity in cultural backgrounds of its pupil population; in part it has sought to achieve this through its transmittal to the oncoming generation of the American heritage and tradition embodied in the literature, arts, explorations, political decisions, and industrial inventions of the American people past and present. Its third task has been to Americanize the children of immigrants, to help them to appreciate the contributions to American life which the culture of their foreign-born parents makes available and utilize it with insight for the enrichment of American achievement and general living. The high school's fourth great work has been to overcome the divisive forces in American society; in classrooms and on the playground young people work and play in equality—there, at least, only fairness and decency of behavior and respect for the individual's performance count, since Americans are all members of minorities. It has remained for a British scholar, Professor Denis W. Brogan of Cambridge University, to state for us the essential nature of the American high school; I quote:

The social and political role of American education cannot be understood if it is thought of as being primarily a means of formal instruction . . . (American schools are doing far more than instruct young peo-

ple); they are letting them instruct each other how to live in America. . . . The political function of the schools is to teach Americanism, meaning not merely political and patriotic dogma, but the habits necessary to American life.¹

If the public junior college is an outgrowth of high school, in response to a deepened insight on the part of the American people who feel a need for further education of their children to meet the increased demands of modern living, should not junior colleges be proud to build upon so substantial an educational foundation?

One other misconception of the nature of the junior college should be noted in passing. There has been a notion abroad that junior college is only a college of liberal arts which somehow missed its mark and failed to mature into one. The unspoken assumption seems to be that had not unseemly public pressures intervened, junior colleges might have developed into colleges of liberal arts, or at least become principally off-campus lower divisions of a university system. The fact is that incipient liberal arts colleges were not corrupted into junior colleges. Like the former academy at the secondary level, the college of liberal arts lost its once dominant position in the United States because too often it ceased to be liberal in spirit and function; it did not measure up to the demands of changing times. Too frequently its faculty adopted the position that most knowledge of importance had already been discovered and recorded in the great books, the so-called classics. It was forgotten that the human mind in a given generation might be limited in vision and understanding but that the knowable is

¹ *The American Political System* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1933).

never finite. Because the liberal arts college chose to hoard its treasure, the professors dissected knowledge into unrecognizable fragments and shut each bit away in isolated and somewhat musty-odored courses. Perhaps inadvertently they fostered a bookish snobbery; but quizkids with sheepskins are still not whole men and women nor humane ones. They failed to recognize that learning is lifelong; an education is not completed at a given moment of time such as commencement day. If junior colleges had not filled the vacuum, some other type of higher institution would have had to appear to satisfy youth's urgent quest for learning.

What then is a junior college? First of all, it is a center for learning which relates study functionally to the life of the community as students know it or can be helped to know it. A liberal education cannot be imposed from above; it is a product of students' growth and behavior as participating members of a community which makes them aware of their inherent tendencies, values, and traditions as Americans. Junior colleges are fortunate not to house students in dormitories; they do not have to invent a lot of artificial campus activities to release the pent-up energies of students, for programs of campus activities relate immediately to the community as a whole. As Joseph K. Hart has written in his book, *Education in the Humane Community*:

Learning to live socially is best accomplished in a world of social realities where all the normal activities of a good social life are going on. Under such conditions activities are released, and nurtured, and disciplined; attitudes are dealt with under the social impact of real experiences; the personality expands into all areas of social living; character takes

form with the bounds and patterns and supports and criticisms of actually living . . . the common life.²

Again, Robert M. Hutchins has observed in *The Conflict in Education*:

One trouble with education in the West is that it has emphasized those respects in which men are different; this is what excessive specialization means. The purpose of basic education is to bring out our common humanity, a consummation more urgently needed today than at any time in the last five hundred years.

The function of man as a man is the same in every age and in every society . . . it is to improve man as man.

A republic is really a common educational life in process . . . the ideal republic is the republic of learning.³

The primary function of junior college then is not training for advanced study at college or university nor for employment in an occupation. It is general education for citizenship to enable its graduates to participate intelligently in community, state, national, and world affairs. As John Milton stated long ago, "I call therefore a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform, justly, skillfully, and magnanimously all the offices both private and public of Peace and War." Or, to quote Hutchins once more, "The student who has had a general education who has mastered the fundamental principles of the sciences and arts, can adjust himself to the world . . . it prepares him for the unpredictable variety of un-

² *Education in the Humane Community* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951).

³ *The Conflict in Education* (New York: Harper and Brothers, 1953), pp. 60, 68, 75.

predictable experiences with which he may be confronted."⁴

As community-centered institutions, junior colleges avoid the error into which some higher institutions fell of training students too exclusively for individually-centered careers. The concept of individual attainment, of individual success, can be over-emphasized. The face-to-face primary group of family and neighbors, with different skills and abilities, where people know one another as whole persons, not as specialized fragments, helps junior college students maintain a sense of "belonging" and escape the biological, moral, and even intellectual, breakdown consequent upon experiencing too much isolation or too great a sense of futility.

The stream of wholesome influence between college and community does not flow in one direction. The *Framework for Public Education in California* not only affirmed that college and community are inseparable but also that "the program of instruction derives vitality and purpose from the resources of the community and in turn *lifts and enriches the level of life in the community.*" The faculty members of a junior college as residents and members of their community extend their influence beyond the classrooms into the homes of their friends and neighbors. The instructional staffs of junior colleges can set an example to the rest of the adult population by demonstrating, as Baker Brownell says, that learning is not merely receptive; it is doing something about it. The best of us are often hard put to keep even casually informed about significant

trends in the modern world. Junior colleges in their approach to instruction have more truly exemplified the spirit of American education to which Professor Edward C. Kirkland alluded in a recent issue of the *Phi Beta Kappa Key Reporter* (October, 1956):

Americans, on the whole, have not wanted the educational systems to emphasize the accumulation and acquisition by students of factual information. They have preferred that American learners learn how to find information and how to use it. . . . We wish (the student) to be spontaneous—self active—self-governing. . . . We give him the conveniences of a perpetual self-education.

Junior colleges have only superficial likeness to other institutions of higher learning; they are like themselves, a unique institution devised by the people of the United States to educate young people and community residents for the responsibilities of American life today. Junior colleges prepare some of their students for upper division studies, and we have seen that they perform this function quite well on the whole. Likewise, junior colleges educate other students in technical occupations to enable them to obtain employment upon completion of their course of training or graduation. In this area of essential service again they have demonstrated their thoroughness. For all students, however, junior colleges try to stimulate intelligent curiosity, to broaden their interests and deepen their insights.

Arnold Toynbee has given a fascinating account, if at times somewhat distorted to fit his main thesis, of the succession of civilizations, has exhumed the remains of buried cultures, and has poked about existing fossil survivors. If history has a lesson for mankind, it must be that nature

⁴ Robert M. Hutchins, "Why Go to College?", *Saturday Evening Post*, January 22, 1938.

is not tender toward any culture which fails to hold inherent survival value for the human species. The ancient Greeks, for example, developed a keen sense of inquiry and liberated the human mind from many superstitions, but they failed to discipline themselves for the orderly conduct of democracy; they failed also to incorporate immigrants from alien city states into their body politic. Shortly they fell victim to demagoguery and too intense local pride. If the United States is to keep its identity as a free people and to contribute to the preservation of human freedom and enterprise throughout the world, it is to junior colleges as the uninhibited growing edge of public education to whom the nation must turn. The junior colleges

could well take to heart the lines of Walt Whitman, who anticipated Toynbee by a hundred years:

I am an acme of things accomplished, and I
an encloser of things to be.

My feet strike an apex of the apices of the
stairs,

On every step bunches of ages, and larger
bunches between the steps,

All below duly travelled, and still I mount
and mount.

We dedicate this building in the name of A. C. Olney because his spirit and vision exemplify the best of the pioneering junior college movement in California and continue to embody the ideals which we shall cherish at the College of Marin for years to come.

This I Tried and Found Helpful

A "Community" Communication Class

Marie Petrone, Mount Aloysius Junior College, Cresson, Pennsylvania

Learning standards of good writing, understanding grammatical rules, and analyzing works of master writers—necessary as they are to a communication class—do not make freshmen good writers unless they actually use this knowledge in their writing frequently. Although writing theme after theme gives a student opportunities to improve his technique, these same themes—when handed back with the familiar red correction marks—may make him wonder just how he fits into (or doesn't fit into) the actual creative process.

One successful answer the writer found to this problem was to devote several classes to group writing projects—the first an essay. After agreeing on a subject and discussing it, phases of it were proposed for a scratch outline. In the next meeting

the group determined a method of organization, formed a topic outline, and wrote an introduction.

As each item or sentence was given—and after hearing, prompting, or making any suggestions for improvement—it was put on the board. As many as five subsequent items could be on view (sometimes to be revised) at any one time. Each class member copied the final decisions for self-use, but three secretaries were also appointed to make a group record. The essay was completed in the third period.

Such a project gives each student a chance both to participate in and observe the writing process. Not only does he benefit by the example of instructor and classmates, but also he gains courage from noting that they, too, experience difficulties composing.

A Study in the Development of Attitudes in a General Education Physical Science Course

WILLIAM I. MOORE AND LEON N. HENDERSON

IN ADDITION to the usual objectives, to what extent can a freshman course in the physical sciences be developed to give all students a better understanding and appreciation of the nature and role of science in the American culture? What approaches and procedures tend to develop the desired attitudes? Answers to these questions were sought recently in a study carried on in a two-year general education program of a state university and the results may have implications for similar courses in junior colleges. Never before have the natural sciences been so much a part of a nation's culture. Never before has it been so imperative that all college students know more science and appreciate more what science means to the American society. The physical sciences can indeed be taught so that they contribute effectively to the program of general education.

WILLIAM I. MOORE is a member of the faculty of Pensacola Junior College. Formerly he was Assistant Professor of Physical Sciences at the University of Florida, where he was awarded the Ph.D. degree in 1956.

LEON N. HENDERSON is Head, Department of Secondary Education, and Junior College Consultant, College of Education, University of Florida, Gainesville. Dr. Henderson has been a member of the University of Florida faculty since 1940. He is the author of a number of educational articles, some of which have appeared in the *Junior College Journal*.

Since science is dominant in the culture, its study could be directed toward helping individuals realize an appreciation of the culture. To do this, the student should develop some accurate ideas as to the nature of science—what it is, what it can do, how it has developed, and so on. In addition, the study of science may be directed toward the achievement of an understanding of the physical environment and toward the development of processes of rational thought.

These three points constitute what should be the primary objectives of general education science courses. In many instances the first idea above—the nature of science—has been neglected in favor of the other two ideas. It is a comparatively straightforward matter to discuss and provide instruction in these latter areas. But to develop an understanding and appreciation of the nature of science involves attitudes, and attitudes are not sufficiently tangible for easy measurement.

The general education physical science course at the University of Florida, as have the other five comprehensive courses, has undergone frequent revisions since it was organized in 1935. Despite the fact that authorities say there are innumerable difficulties in developing a general education course embracing the physical sciences, this course at the University of

Florida years ago settled down on well-proven ground. The course is two semesters long, and all students follow the same text¹ during the first semester. The objectives emphasized are developing an understanding of some common phenomena and developing the use of reasoning. During the second semester the student has a choice among three general education-oriented courses in the physical sciences; namely, geology, physics, or astronomy. Until recently the objectives named above were the ones used for the second semester. It was felt that the second semester should also emphasize the third general education science objective—the development of a positive attitude toward the nature of science.

The bulk of the students in this general education course will never take additional work in the physical sciences. This, then, is a final opportunity to try to develop a better understanding of the nature of science. The first two objectives mentioned above were not to be discarded but relegated to a supporting role. In view of the fact that this represented a new orientation for the second semester, it was decided to have a trial run to determine the feasibility of such a course at the University of Florida. The astronomy variant was selected for the trial.

First, the nature of science had to be established. The following aspects of science were taken to be the ones which characterized this "nature": (1) Science is a human activity, (2) The methods of science are many, (3) Science is dynamic, (4) Science has limitations, and (5) Science may be pure or applied. Second,

from an examination of the literature and from the personal experiences of the staff, it was believed that the new primary objective could be achieved best by examining the growth of ideas and emphasizing the discussion method of teaching in examining the excerpts; use of a textbook to supply factual information; use of recitation and informal lecture methods of teaching as well as discussion to examine the factual information; and use of observing sessions as a form of laboratory. Previously, the informal lecture and recitation methods had been emphasized. Furthermore, little thought had been given to the development of the growth-of-ideas theme.

Evaluation of the course was based on data from the following sources: opinions of instructors; ratings by students; classroom observations; and various objective instruments which measured attitudes toward the nature of science (as defined locally), factual information, and reasoning ability.

The primary objective of the experimental course implied an attitude change on the part of the student. Since this objective, and hence the attitude, was defined locally, it was necessary to develop an attitude scale so that measurements of change could be made. The attitude scale was based on the assumption that attitudes are reflected in opinions. The scale was a Likert-type scale² prepared in two equivalent forms for pre-testing and post-testing purposes. Pre-tests were given during the first week of classes and post-tests during the last week. The validity of the items on the scale were established by

¹ L. W. Gaddum and H. L. Knowles, *Our Physical Environment* (New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1953).

² H. H. Remmers, *Introduction to Opinion and Attitude Measurement* (New York: Harper and Bros., 1954), 94-95.

means of a jury study and item analysis through the use of the Phi-coefficient.³ Reliability was established by the Rulon formula.⁴

In order to be able to measure gain in factual information, two equivalent forms of an astronomy information test were devised locally. Items were selected for this instrument on the basis of previous item analyses of departmental tests by the University's Board of Examiners. The statistics available from this source for the items were (1) difficulty (per cent of entire group making the correct response) and (2) validity (a form of tetrachoric correlation which indicated the differential power of the item). Reasoning ability change was measured by a comparison of scores on the reasoning-type questions employed in the first and last departmental tests.

The newly oriented course was offered during the spring term, 1956, at the University of Florida. There were seven instructors teaching 12 sections with a total of 179 students. Four sections were selected as the source of the evaluative data, and they were selected in such a way as to minimize the influence of the personal preferences of instructors and to minimize variations which might have arisen due to time of class meeting. Classroom location had no variable influence as all sections used the same room.

For most statistical work, data from a total of 42 students were available. Much of the statistical analysis dealt with com-

parisons of scores. It was decided to use Student's *t*-test⁵ and the 5 per cent level of confidence as guides in the various comparisons. Since Student's *t*-test is predicated on the assumption that the difference between the variances of two sets of scores may be attributed to chance alone, it was necessary to verify this assumption. The *F*-test⁶ was used to accomplish the verification.

The question of prime significance was whether the main objective of the course had been attained. Essential statistical data relative to this question are presented in Table 1.

The observations that follow may be made from the data of Table 1. There was an over-all gain of 4.3 points (from 75.7 to 80.0) on the scale. When the two sets of scores were analyzed statistically, it was found that the *F* value of 1.68 was at the 5 per cent level of confidence. Since the *F* value for the data was less than that for the 5 per cent level, it was concluded that the variances of the two sets of scores differed only because of chance. With this condition satisfied, Student's *t*-test was applied to determine whether there was any significant difference between the means, or whether the difference could have been accounted for by chance alone. Student's *t* for these data was 4.42. From statistical tables it was determined that a *t* as large as 1.96 could be assigned to chance alone at the 5 per cent level of confidence. Since the *t* from the data well exceeded this number, the difference between the means was considered significant. The conclusion was drawn that the students had im-

³ J. P. Guilford, "The Phi Coefficient and Chi Square as Indices of Item Validity," *Psychometrika*, VI (February, 1941), 11-19.

⁴ J. P. Guilford, *Psychometric Methods* (2nd ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1954), 379.

⁵ P. G. Hoel, *Introduction to Mathematical Statistics* (2nd ed.; New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1954), 222-229.

⁶ *Ibid.*, pp. 233-237.

TABLE I

*Opinion Scale Scores and Tests of Significance For Four Sections of
C-22d, Spring Term, 1956*

Type of Data	Pre-Test Score	Post-Test Score	Five Per Cent Level
Number of Students	42	42
Range of scores	65— 88	70— 91
Mean score	75.7	80.0
Variance of scores	28.5	30.4
Value of F	1.06		1.68
Value of Student's t	4.42		1.96

proved in their attitudes toward the nature of science.

The second objective of the course—to develop an understanding of some common phenomena—was subjected to a pre-test and post-test situation. The data were treated in a fashion similar to those for the first objective. The difference between the variances proved to be such that it could be attributed to chance alone. With this condition satisfied, Student's *t*-test was applied. The pre-test mean score was 5.5 and the post-test mean score was 12.9, indicating a gain of 7.4 points. The value of Student's *t* was 7.03, much larger than the 5 per cent level of confidence value of 1.96. Thus, for the second objective, there was a significant difference between the means, and the conclusion drawn that it had been achieved.

The third objective of the course—to develop the use of reasoning—also had sets of scores for comparison as the raw data. However, the variances differed by an amount which could not be attributed to chance alone. Hence, a non-parametric method, the Sign test⁷, was used. This pro-

cedure indicated that, although there was a gain in reasoning ability, it was not enough to be considered significant at the 5 per cent level of confidence.

One possible explanation for this insignificant increase was that the objective was not taught for directly and thus had to develop incidentally. Opportunities to use reasoning ability were amply provided, but a direct attack upon the methods and processes of reasoning were not emphasized. However, the same statement could be made about the first objective. At no time during the course did an instructor knowingly say, "Notice how science is strictly a human activity. Do you see how science is limited? Were you aware of all these different scientific methods?" It was the intent of the presentation to see if students could arrive at these conclusions through their own efforts. Evidently, for the primary objective, this process was successful but failed with respect to reasoning ability. It was felt that the answer to this lay in the basic nature of the two processes. An attitude or opinion may be conditioned without a great deal of conscious effort. Reasoning ability, on the other hand, to be improved, must be

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 285-288.

worked on consciously. Therefore, the evidence seemed to point to a need for a more emphatic, conscious attack upon the matter of reasoning.

Student evaluation by means of an anonymous questionnaire was effected on the last day of classes. The students evidenced general satisfaction with the course, except for the excerpts from original writings. They felt that these were only "Fair," while the other aspects of the course received "Good" or "Very Good" ratings. In discussing this with the instructors concerned following the end of the course, it was decided that probably the quantity of material in these excerpts was out of line with the time allotted for their study and that some adjustment should be made in any future presentation. Also, since the excerpts were not phrased in modern language terms, it was believed that the students were handicapped by the mode of language expression in the excerpts.

In summary, the study was initiated to determine the feasibility of certain ideas

in the general education physical sciences course at the University of Florida. The main idea to be tried was the use of a new primary objective—to develop a positive attitude toward the nature of science. It was believed that the objective could be achieved through an examination of the growth-of-ideas and the utilization of the discussion method of teaching.

In reviewing the results it was noted that the first objective of the course—the focal emphasis of the course—was attained, the second objective was attained, and the third objective, though not attained, was felt to be within the reach of the course. The growth-of-ideas theme and the discussion techniques helped to achieve the objectives. It was the belief of the staff that corrective action is possible in every aspect of the course which indicated a need for revision or modification. Therefore, it was concluded that, in general, the revision under the pilot study was acceptable for the purposes desired and feasible for University of Florida freshman students.

The Role of a Language Club in a Community College

HILDE JAECKEL

LANGUAGES ARE sometimes the stepchildren in the curriculum of a community college. Many students take them only for credit's sake and would not touch them if they were not required. Many ways can be used to stimulate interest in languages which will differ according to the institution, the students, and the personality of the teacher. Because the classroom time allotted is often limited and the amount of material to be covered staggering, students and teachers alike feel tremendous pressure during class periods.

The language club offers an excellent opportunity for a more personal relationship to languages. The greater interest which is developed there will carry over into the classroom and into life. Programs of various types have proven successful and differ according to the changing group. However, some seem to remain constantly popular.

Foreign speakers, for instance, are usually well liked. Should their English not be sufficiently fluent for a formal lecture, an informal "causerie" or a question and answer period with light refreshments has often developed a "give and take" atmosphere stimulating and profitable for

both guests and students. The latter have acquired useful information based on their own questions, and the foreign visitors have made the acquaintance of American youth about whom they frequently had preconceived and very wrong ideas. Social evenings in which the students acted as hosts to newly arrived and somewhat bewildered foreigners have been especially gratifying because the young people were on the giving side and at the same time were trying to visualize what it meant to be in a foreign country with language difficulties and adjustment problems.

Foreign movies naturally play a great part in any language club. They give firsthand information of the country and its people and are extremely helpful in ear training. If the whole class attends a showing together, it not only stimulates interest in the people whose language is being studied but also creates a strong group feeling which carries over into other work. Slides and foreign cartoons can also be used effectively as well as exhibitions of objects which are characteristic of the country. Should there be foreign students in the club, they will welcome the opportunity to show their own material, and their own personal explanations are valuable for both sides.

If permitted by the college, field trips

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provide an important experience for students. A visit to an exhibition of foreign paintings may open up new avenues of understanding not only of some specific masterworks but of art in general. A guided tour through the Institute of Linguistics in Washington, if the students live in that area, can create great interest in languages. Here they may examine a wealth of tapes rarely to be seen, listen to some of them, gain an idea of the training of future U.N. interpreters, and become aware of strange dialects and languages by looking at the blackboards or leafing through books and magazines. A trip to the U.N. itself means a great deal to many students by testing their knowledge of languages and giving them a feeling of the importance of international understanding by means of language study. Here theory becomes reality; the purely intellectual approach changes into a more human, more emotional attitude and true motivation for language studies is developed. Especially for students who live in a smaller city, this trip may have an unforgettable influence, giving them a feeling for the large world community and thus affecting not only their relationship to languages but to the world in general.

Part of the success of a language club consists in a well-balanced mixture of intellectual and social pleasures. The latter are important for keeping the group together and cementing feelings of friendship. Students like to use even a primitive knowledge of their new language. Writing skits to be produced in a club meeting is excellent practice and at the same time great entertainment for everyone, actors and audience alike.

Christmas parties with foreign songs and foreign pastries baked by the members of the club are an important part of the year's program. Sometimes the young people prepare a basket for a needy foreign family to give them the Christmas pleasures they themselves experience. Dining as a group in a foreign restaurant conveys the feeling of plunging for a short time into a foreign atmosphere and seems to contribute a great deal to a good student-teacher relationship.

For many years the language club of the college in which the writer taught arranged a big celebration of the "Mardi-Gras," which became a well-established tradition and the major social event of the year for the whole school. Elaborate foreign decorations, eccentric costumes, and good entertainment did a great deal for school spirit. Often the seniors of other high schools were invited to join in the fun and to become, perhaps, future students. The "Mardi-Gras" meant an incredible amount of work, but never did the group feel closer and more stimulated than during those days of excited preparations.

Many other projects could be mentioned here: visits to embassies, correspondence with foreign students, musical evenings, the sponsoring of foreign movies for the community, etc. Enthusiasm and imagination as always in life can develop new plans, create new situations and new attitudes. If the language club brings languages and life closer to each other, its goal has been achieved and its role in the community college well established.

A Survey of the Literature on the Junior College Library

SISTER CARLOS MARIA MILLER, R.S.M.

In their time-rewarded efforts to establish the junior college firmly within the educational pattern of America, proponents of the movement have labored to stress the unique contribution which the junior college is equipped to bring to such a system. That this distinctive characteristic is shared by the junior college library follows from the generally acknowledged fact that the library by its very nature complements in its objectives the aims of its parent institution.

It is not surprising, then, that a body of literature should have evolved specific in its attention to the problems and the nature of the junior college library and intent on evaluating it as an entity distinct from other types of libraries. Indeed, a perusal of the writings which, between the years 1925 and 1950, have occupied the attention not only of librarians but of educators in general evidences more than a passing engrossment in the status and importance of the library as a unit designed to serve the needs of the junior college.

The recent study of the literature on the junior college library from which this article is drawn reveals that general works in the junior college have failed for the most part to give more than a cursory

treatment of the library as a factor of importance in junior college development. Notable among the exceptions, however, is the work of Walter Crosby Eells whose chapter-length discussion of the library in *The Junior College*² gives substantial recognition to the far-reaching effect of a health library upon the institution it serves. A later work of Phebe Ward entitled, *Terminal Education in the Junior College*,³ presents a challenging, if not lengthy, treatment of this neglected unit.

In spite of the comparative silence of general studies on the subject of the library, one does not find an eagerness to remedy this deficiency through the publication of full-length works devoted entirely to the library. Nevertheless, four volumes did provide a substantial contribution to a general analysis of the library. First among these was *The Junior College Library*⁴ by Ermine Stone. A synthesis of previous publications and studies, it pro-

¹ This article is taken from a dissertation entitled, "An Evaluative Survey of the Literature on the Junior College Library, 1925-1950," submitted at The Catholic University of America in a partial fulfillment of the degree, Master of Library Science.

² Walter C. Eells, *The Junior College* (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin Co., 1931).

³ Phebe Ward, *Terminal Education in the Junior College* (New York: Harper & Bros., 1947).

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vided the junior college librarian with a practical manual for the solution of problems, some of which were common to most librarians and others peculiar to the junior college situation. The three remaining works made a distinctive contribution in their interpretation of the functions of the library as a vital element in the educational program. The doctoral work of Harlen Martin Adams,⁵ published jointly by Stanford University Press and the American Library Association, analyzed the library's potentialities as the focal point of the institution. In an earlier publication entitled, *Vitalizing a College Library*,⁶ B. Lamar Johnson demonstrated the practicality of such an interpretation as embodied in the Stephens College experiment, and in 1948, in conjunction with Eloise Lindstrom,⁷ he explored its implications for both the teacher and the librarian. Important and welcome as these works were, they in no way exhausted the field of study.

During this period, research, though not overly absorbed in the study of the junior college library, made some significant contributions toward a deeper understanding of its nature and growth. Interpretations of standards and practices

in junior college libraries offered a clearer insight into the accomplishments and needs of the library as did the research on the library's position in the educational pattern. Other works turned attention to problems of housing and equipment, analysis of book stock and periodical collections, and to the consideration of the library as an agent for teaching. The selection of books directed primarily toward a clientele which was neither of high school nor yet of a university or four-year college status posed a problem for the junior college librarian which is reflected in the responses to these needs.

Research proffered a solution to the problem in the compilation of several book lists, some general in scope, others limited to a special phase or subject. Outstanding among the earlier works was that of Eugene Hilton who in 1929 compiled a list of books⁸ for collateral reading carefully evaluated for basic junior college courses. This first comprehensive list for junior college libraries received a general acclaim from librarians eager for some guidance in the problems of selection for this specialized group of students. Under the sponsorship of the American Library Association, Edna A. Hester's *Books for Junior Colleges*⁹ published one year later, was similarly acclaimed and helped to fill a real need in the field of book selection.

Six years elapsed before the appearance of the list now widely known and accepted among junior colleges, *List of Books for*

⁴ Ermine Stone, *The Junior College Library* (Chicago: The American Library Association, 1932).

⁵ Harlen Martin Adams, *The Junior College Library Program* (Chicago: The American Library Association, 1940).

⁶ B. Lamar Johnson, *Vitalizing a College Library* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1939).

⁷ B. Lamar Johnson and Eloise Lindstrom, (eds.), *The Librarian and the Teacher in General Education* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1948).

⁸ Eugene Hilton, *Junior College Book List* (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1930).

⁹ Edna A. Hester, *Books for Junior Colleges* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1931).

Junior College Libraries,¹⁰ compiled by Foster E. Mohrhardt in response to the request of the Carnegie Advisory Committee. These three lists remained the principal guides for junior college librarians until the appearance of the latest compilation by Francis J. Bertalan.¹¹

In examining the periodical literature on the junior college library, one can detect evidence of some of the general trends at work in the junior college field. There was, for example, from the year 1923 on, when they were first formulated, a deep interest in junior college standards. The year 1934 saw a livelier concern for the library situation as a whole as a result of a study instituted by the Carnegie Advisory Board. Organized under the chairmanship of William Warner Bishop, the Board sought to do for the junior college what in 1929 it had done for the four-year institution. Accordingly, the Board set about investigating the junior college library, seeking to establish standards of evaluation by which it could be guided in distributing its \$300,000 grant. Out of this study grew the Mohrhardt *List of Books*, planned as a guide to the evaluation of the book collection.¹² From this, too, flowed a series of writings mirroring a disquietude over the current status of the library, and a determination to remedy its urgent needs. After three years of intensive study, the Advisory Group allotted its grants to

92 junior colleges in all parts of the United States,¹³ but not less valuable among its contributions were the list of books and the development of a new set of standards for the future improvement of the library.

Prior to the work of the Carnegie Corporation in 1931, another study, experimental in nature, was occupying the attention of Stephens College and, through a series of articles which flowed from it, the interest of the entire junior college library world. A five-year program, this study embodied an effort to build the complete educational structure of the junior college around the library, an effort which was to reach out into all the areas of the curriculum and the administration.¹⁴ Articles on this movement, mainly written by B. Lamar Johnson, dean of instruction and librarian at Stephens College, examined every possible phase of integration of the library with the educational pattern, from the results of the use of divisional libraries and the establishment of dormitory collections to the reorganization of the library with the librarian acting as dean of instruction. Indeed, interest in this movement continued from its inception in 1931 through 1948, drawing from it two full length works summarizing the experiment and its possibilities for other libraries.¹⁵

The distribution of writings over the 25-year period under discussion brings to light a variety of interests and, at the same time, a striking adherence to the same

¹⁰ Foster E. Mohrhardt, *A List of Books for Junior College Libraries* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1937).

¹¹ F. J. Bertalan, *Books for Junior Colleges* (Chicago: American Library Association, 1954).

¹² W. C. Eells, "The Significance of the Junior College Library" (editorial), *Junior College Journal*, VIII (October, 1937), 1-2.

¹³ *Ibid.*

¹⁴ B. Lamar Johnson, "Stephens College Library Experiment," *Junior College Journal*, IV (April, 1934), 358-61.

¹⁵ B. L. Johnson and E. Lindstrom, *op. cit.*

problems recurring from year to year. During the years immediately preceding the Carnegie study, the emphasis lay on a grave concern for the needs of the library together with frequent attempts to formulate criteria for improving the situation. Thus, in 1929 came the suggestions of Elizabeth West¹⁶ whose advocated standards contributed largely to the "Measuring Stick" drawn up in 1930;¹⁷ statistical surveys of junior colleges in their relation to current standards; progress reports of committees delegated by accrediting agencies to investigate the situation; score cards; and comparative analyses of existing standards already set up in various sections of the country.

In conjunction with standardization and the problems it posed, it is logical to find numerous writings on the subject of book selection. Most of these were only an investigation of the problem approached from a different angle—that of needed criteria for the selection of basic book stock. Aside from Ermine Stone's much heralded *Junior College Library*, no other aspect of library work was attacked during this decade with equal energy. One should not overlook, however, noteworthy writings stemming from a brief preoccupation with student use of the library and probing such phases as vocational guidance, library instruction, and analyses of the library's position in the New College Plan at the University of Chicago. There were, in addition, interesting discussions of organization and administration, such as an article by Coit

Coolidge¹⁸ on the separation of the high school and junior college library and a doctoral study by W. L. Emerson on the secondary school library.¹⁹

Since the years 1934 to 1937 were highlighted by the Carnegie Study, most of the articles written during these three years reflect this all-important event in the junior college library world. One notes, too, possibly through the influence of this study and that of the Stephens College experiment, a sizeable increase in the volume of writings many of which are still largely concerned with standards and status of the library. Some attention is devoted, however, to the choice of periodicals and the encouragement of reading among students. From the Stephens College experiment came articles on the status of the librarian as an associate in college instruction; faculty-relations with the library; and the use of the library for instructional supervision. With the exception of an article on library assistants,²⁰ no further significant areas seem to have been explored.

During the remaining years with which this survey is concerned, preoccupation with standards gave way, but not entirely, to a deepened interest in the position of the library in the educational scheme. Possibly this can be accounted for both because interest in standards had been progressively an interest in quality and ob-

¹⁶ E. H. West, "Suggestions for Texas Junior College Libraries," *Texas Outlook*, XIII (July, August, 1929).

¹⁷ E. M. Homer, "A Junior College Measuring Stick" *ALA Bulletin*, (July, 1930), 296-97.

¹⁸ Coit Coolidge, "Shall We Divide the Junior College Library?" *Junior College Journal*, III (April, 1933), 354-57.

¹⁹ W. L. Emerson, "A Study of Secondary School Libraries in the United States from the Standpoint of Educational Administration" (Unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Southern California, 1933).

²⁰ Margaret McGowan, "NYA Junior College Library Assistants," *Junior College Journal*, VI (February, 1936), 227-29.

jectives and because the Stephens College experiment focused much attention on this paramount function of the library. An article on classification and pay plans²¹ and another on building programs²² represent departures from the usual type of problems analyzed. One on the individual guidance of high school and junior college students²³ picks up a thread woven very lightly through preceding years.

Two other phases of library development find representation among writings of these later years: the administration of audio-visual programs, and the problem of post-professional education or in-service training. Although these writings are comparatively few in number, they seem to indicate an increased tendency to estimate the stature of the junior college library in the light of existing and progressive norms.

Retrospection has revealed a variety of problems in which the junior college library has been engrossed during the span of years between 1925 and 1950. Many of the discussions presented challenges capable of enkindling a greater interest, it would seem, than subsequent writings evinced. Many, too, disclosed all too briefly expanses fertile but lamentably unexplored. A few outstanding statements culled from articles from year to year pro-

vide an interesting cross-section of the general attitude which seems to have pervaded the entire 25-year period:

1926: The library has not yet a fully recognized place in the educational scheme of the small college. There is need for suitable rooms, for a well-rounded collection brought about through careful study of book selection.²⁴

1928: Flora B. Ludington voices dissatisfaction over the lack of understanding among junior college transfer students in the use of the library, and criticizes the younger institution for failure to open the library in the evenings.²⁵

1930: The Conference on Junior College Librarians reiterates the complaint printed in the *College and Reference Yearbook*, No. 1:

It is not too much to say that at present the junior college libraries as a group fall far short of efficiency either in service or in books. This deficiency is one of the most serious counts against the junior college as it now exists. If junior colleges are to be admitted to full academic fellowship, they must look to their libraries at once.²⁶

1931: Miss Coulter, in analyzing the function of the junior college library, asserts that the library has not yet become an important factor in junior college development because of lack of recognition. In the same article she points to the unsatisfactory status of librarian-certification.²⁷

²¹ E. H. Wilson, "Use of Classification and Pay Plans in Junior College Libraries," *College and Research Libraries*, X (October, 1949), 423-28.

²² C. D. Hardesty, "Planning the Junior College Library," *American School and University*, Vol. 12 (New York: American School Publishing Corporation, 1940), 308-13.

²³ Goldie B. Ingles, "The Individual Guidance of High School and Junior College Students," *Library Journal*, LXVI (September 1, 1941), 706-707.

²⁴ B. B. McClanahan, "What Are the Greatest Needs and the Greatest Handicaps of the Average Junior College Library?" *Libraries*, XXXI (April, 1926), 21.

²⁵ Flora B. Ludington, "Standards Reached by the Smaller College Libraries of the Pacific Coast," *News Notes of California Libraries*, XXIII (January, 1928), 4-6.

²⁶ "Junior College Section in the ALA," *Junior College Journal*, I (October, 1930), 47-48.

²⁷ E. M. Coulter, "The Function of the Junior College Library," *Junior College Journal*, I (May, 1931), 481-86.

1933: The professional status of the librarian leaves much to be desired.²⁸

1934: The Junior College Library Round Table alludes to 'ignorance and its accompanying disinterestedness on the part of the administration,' and to the librarian's own failure to make the most of her resources in equipping the library.²⁹

1935: W. W. Haggard repeats the complaint that the library has not kept pace with the development of the junior college in general.³⁰

The character of the periodical list is the most serious criticism to be brought against those persons responsible for the development of junior college libraries. . . . The attitude of most junior colleges towards periodicals is their strangest and most disconcerting single feature.³¹

1936: The conclusion of the Junior College Round Table: In general conscientious service is limited in efforts by a lack of new and interesting books.³²

1937: Arthur M. McAnally alludes to the poor quality of most present day junior college libraries; the failure to co-ordinate the library with instructional programs; reluctance of the faculty to assist in the selection of books.³³

1938: Among the problems hampering the realization of the aims of the library are the correlation of the use of the library with the instructional procedure and the determination of the functions of the junior college library.³⁴

²⁸ H. V. Knopf, "Report of the Committee on Junior Colleges," *Bulletin*, School Library Association of California (Northern Section), V (May, 1933), 2-3.

²⁹ "Libraries Round Table," *Junior College Journal*, V (October, 1934), 38.

³⁰ W. W. Haggard, "Shortcomings in the Junior College Library," *Junior College Journal*, V (February, 1935), 225-26.

³¹ *Ibid.*, p. 226.

³² "Junior College Round Table," *ALA Bulletin*, XXX (August, 1936), 701.

³³ Arthur M. McAnally, "Book Selection Technique in the Junior College Library," *Library Journal*, LXII (September 1, 1937), 57-58.

1940: J. C. Settlemyer: . . . Except for a few notable cases, the libraries of these colleges have lagged far behind the development of the institutions. . . . Some boards of education, superintendents, deans, and even faculty are slow in recognizing the contribution of the library.³⁵

Dr. Eell's summary of needed developments:

1. Development of library consciousness on the part of the administration and boards of education.
2. Compilation of information on junior college libraries.
3. Improvement of the book collection.
4. Improvement of the periodical collection.
5. Greater emphasis on library service.
6. Better library tools.
7. Increased recognition of staff.
8. Evaluation of libraries.
9. Organization of a library section of the AAJC.³⁶

1942: F. B. Moe: There is a widespread need for the improvement of service but junior college administrators as a rule have not met the library problem with the same determination as other problems.³⁷

E. B. Church: Too little has been written of the progress of library techniques in the junior college library . . . and a smaller amount has been reported of the activities of the reference librarian in the junior college library.³⁸

1943: Edward Mahoney, O.S.B.: Repeats

³⁴ H. M. Adams, "Library Practices and Instructional Methods," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (February, 1938), 204-208.

³⁵ John C. Settlemyer, "A Glance at Junior College Libraries," *Minnesota Libraries*, XIII (December, 1940), 108-110.

³⁶ W. C. Eells, "Needed Developments in Junior College Libraries," *College and Research Libraries*, I (September, 1940), 347-56.

³⁷ F. B. Moe, "Significance of the Junior College Library in the Educational Program," *College and Research Libraries*, IV (December, 1942), 60-63.

³⁸ E. B. Church, "Reference Work in the Junior College Library," *Wilson Library Bulletin*, XVII (November, 1942), 236.

W. W. Bishop's criticism in 1935 of the character of the periodical list.³⁹

1948: Alfred G. Trump asserts the continued validity of Mr. Settlemyer's statement of eight years ago: 'Except for a few notable cases, the libraries of these colleges have lagged far behind the development of the institutions.'⁴⁰

1949: C. B. Thayer: We know that it is possible for a junior college to lose its head and still retain its faculties, but, if the library is indeed the heart of an educational institution, the careful observer can only conclude that junior colleges have a bad case of heart trouble. The present condition of junior college libraries is somewhat comparable to a medical case wherein the heart of a child ceased to develop although the child continued to grow. The heart, serviceable enough for the child, was highly inadequate for the man. Just as the child outgrew his heart, the junior college's demands are outgrowing the services of its library.⁴¹

A backward glance at these random statements, then, evinces the fact that the junior college library has been assiduous in the examination of its conscience, that it has probed deeply into the fiber of its own weaknesses and has presented to itself, in the light of existing norms, a somber depiction of its shortcomings and of the problems it must face.

In doing so, it has followed an almost unmitigatedly negative process. Its proponents have resembled physicians capable of placing an accurate finger upon the nature of the illness yet failing to proceed into the etiology of the malady or

the application of remedies. It is this failure to approach the problem of the library positively which constitutes the greatest gap in the literature contributed during the 25-year period under analysis. Few constructive solutions have been proffered to respond to the barrage of honest criticism which comprises the major portion of the writings on this subject.

Exceptions to this failure to offer solution to the many problems besetting the junior college library are most evident in the encouraging effort to analyse the library's position in the educational program itself—an approach which underlines fundamentals and offers heartening possibilities for future development. This general appreciation is reflected in the response in book reviews to the work of Adams and Johnson both of which were hailed as significant contributions to this specialized field.

Although it is comparatively easy to account for the increase of writings immediately prior to and during the Carnegie study of the library, the progressive diminution of literature from the year 1940 to 1950 is somewhat less explicable. This is especially baffling when viewed in the light of the candid evaluation which the writings up to this time had made of the library, an estimate which one would suppose would have acted as a spur toward further improvement and an open invitation to bring to the solution of its numerous problems an equal volume of suggestions and interpretations.

Perhaps a step in this direction and an encouraging indication of a trend toward more positive analysis is discernible in the formation in 1947 of a special library committee appointed to identify the problems in greatest need of investi-

³⁹ Edward Mahony, O.S.B. "Catholic Junior College Library Service," *Catholic Library World*, XIV (April, 1943), 202.

⁴⁰ Alfred G. Trump, "Minnesota Junior College Library Statistics," *Minnesota Libraries*, XV (June, 1948), 317.

⁴¹ C. B. Thayer, "New Role of the Junior College Library," *Junior College Journal*, XIX (March, 1949), 396.

gation. This survey polled the opinions of 39 administrators and 104 junior college librarians and pointed up four problems which all agreed needed further study.

They were:

1. Expenditures for books and periodicals.
2. Teaching students the use of the library.
3. Activities of teachers to encourage effective use of the library.
4. Study of the library plan and facilities.⁴²

Among other problems which received less unanimous agreement were: the selection and training of student assistants; the encouragement of reading for pleasure; responsibility of the library in supplying visual aids; and inservice training.⁴³

With the exception of the problem of teaching students the use of books and libraries, almost nothing had appeared prior to this date on the subjects designated for study. One is surprised, however, to note that of the other needs voiced in previous complaints from year to year, no mention is made of the problem of achieving through the administration the encouragement of the library as an integral part of the institution, a problem whose solution, no doubt, lies in the interpretation of basic objectives and the nature of the library in relation to the junior college. Nor is there concern for the professional status of the librarian, so overtly alluded to in past criticism.

In his review of Ermine Stone's *The*

Junior College Library, W. L. Iverson⁴⁴ questions the author's implication that the problems she poses for solution in her manual were peculiar to the junior college library alone. It is this thought which comes to the mind of the reader who has completed a general perusal of the library's literature, for the tenor of the writings fails to impress upon the mind of the reader that the junior college library is indeed different and that there is a calculable basis for that difference. Though several writings have been at pains to point this out, the composite of the literature leans heavily toward the conclusion that the junior college library has not yet ferreted out its own distinct position nor squarely faced the general objectives toward which it is striving—objectives which may in time justify the predictions of William W. Bishop who said:

The junior college library, *at its best*, today is something new in the American library scene. It is going to grow into something different from the older college and university library and different also from the public library. It is going, I believe, to do for young men and women what none of the older forms of the library can do, just because they deal with more general groups, with more advanced stages of study. . . . This means a new type of library service. . . .⁴⁵

It is precisely this challenging "newness" for which one looks in vain in the majority of the literature which has thus far attempted to "explain" the junior college library.

⁴² B. L. Johnson, "Junior College Library Problems," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (December, 1947), 178.

⁴³ *Ibid.*, p. 179.

⁴⁴ W. L. Iverson, "Judging the New Books," *Junior College Journal*, II (October, 1931), 59.

⁴⁵ W. W. Bishop, "Library Service in the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, V (May, 1935), 458.

Employers Look at the Junior College Graduate

JOHNS H. HARRINGTON

"PUBLIC SCHOOLS are continually confronted with the problem of measuring the effectiveness of their programs and evaluating the instruction given to students enrolled in their courses," wrote Dr. Alexander J. Stoddard, then superintendent of the Los Angeles City Schools in April, 1953, to George Shellenberger, executive vice president of the Merchants and Manufacturers Association of Los Angeles.

"We are concerned," Dr. Stoddard continued, "with the extent to which Los Angeles junior colleges are serving the needs of business and industry in the metropolitan Los Angeles area. Therefore, would it be possible and practical for the Merchants and Manufacturers Association to sample the opinion of employers regarding the competence of workers who have received their training in one of the seven junior colleges of Los Angeles?"

Shellenberger favored the proposed evaluation, and details were worked out following conferences with Randolph van Nostrand, public relations director of the Merchants and Manufacturers Association, and with approval of the Associ-

ation's committees. A questionnaire was developed by representatives from North American Aviation, Southern Counties Gas, Bank of America, AiResearch Manufacturing Company, Hughes Aircraft, Title Insurance and Trust, Sears and Roebuck, and Lockheed Aircraft. Also present were John N. Given, director of the Los Angeles Junior College of Business, and Dr. Adam Diehl, dean of curriculum services for Los Angeles City College.

The actual survey was conducted by the Research Department of Manufacturers and Merchants Association, which sent out questionnaires to 516 companies employing a group of graduates selected at random from the classes of 1952-53. Of the questionnaires returned with adequate information, 341 were tabulated, a response of 66 per cent. A final report was forwarded by van Nostrand on behalf of the Association to Dr. Stoddard on May 27, 1954.

The survey revealed that 71.2 per cent of the employers felt that graduates were better prepared as a result of their junior college training. More than 88.3 per cent of the employers stated that the jobs of the graduates were related to the courses taken while in school. One of the most significant results of the survey was the "amazingly high percentage of graduates presently employed by the same em-

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ployer."¹ While 45.3 per cent of the average turnover in companies was among those persons who have been working three months or less, employers found that 75.6 per cent of the 1952 and 1953 junior college graduates were still with the same firms. The figures also apparently indicated that the individual trained by the junior college maintains a 20 to 30 per cent earning advantage in beginning his business career.

Other results of the survey showed that 61.3 per cent of employers felt that graduates obtained better beginning jobs as a result of their training, and 60.9 per cent stated that the junior college course work gave graduates a better chance for promotions.

It might also be noted that a study undertaken by the schools prior to the one completed by the Merchants and Manufacturers Association is likewise encouraging. At the time, Los Angeles Trade Technical Junior College indicated greatest demand for workers in auto, metal, electrical and communications, food, and apparel trades. Numerous employment opportunities for students from the Los Angeles Junior College of Business were in such fields as bookkeeping, comptometry machine bookkeeping, P.B.X., stenography, transcribing machines, typing and clerical work. Inasmuch as the survey was conducted prior to Los Angeles Pierce Junior College's expansion of course offerings to include business, employment data from this junior college showed that 82 per cent of former students were in agricultural occupations.

Full-time work for women graduates

¹ Merchants and Manufacturers Association *Evaluation Survey of Junior College Curricula*, May 27, 1954, p. 9.

of Los Angeles City College proved to be especially plentiful in 17 areas, while former men students found the greatest number of opportunities in 10 fields. Los Angeles City College also indicated a critical shortage of trained men in engineering, science, and mathematics, which illustrates junior college interest in staying abreast of community needs. Another emphatic example was shown by East Los Angeles Junior College when it reported that in the same year 4,397 employment contacts had been made by the college and 400 personal conferences had been held with industrialists and business executives.

Harbor Junior College found that requests by employers exceeded the supply of students. In the case of graduates in petroleum technology, one company took all of the year's graduates and put them to work in technical positions. Harbor also indicated that all business students were employed within one week following graduation.

At the time of the survey, Valley Junior College was virtually brand new; yet practically 100 per cent of its first graduating class either found employment or enrolled in a four-year college or university. Valley placement administrators reported the greatest demand for graduates in retail establishments, offices, and industry.

In view of the encouraging records compiled by the junior colleges as a result of the demand for graduates and because of the enthusiasm of employers as reported by the Merchants and Manufacturers Association, it is possible to conclude that the two years of education beyond the high school provided by the citizens of Los Angeles are successfully aiding the community in facing the many tasks of business and industry. Undoubtedly the best

yardstick by which junior college courses can be measured is the response of the community to the graduate after he receives his diploma and goes to work in the field for which he has prepared.

The critical value of the assistance given by junior college education becomes even more evident by the city's remarkable growth and consequently greater challenge for a continuing and increasing

number of well-trained young men and women. Since 1900 the population of Los Angeles has increased from approximately 100,000 to 2,115,000. It is indeed appropriate for employers to look at the junior college graduate for the purpose of evaluating his vocational training, and the result has been of immeasurable value to both business and education.

JUNIOR COLLEGE CURRICULUM EVALUATION SURVEY

*Conducted by Merchants and Manufacturers Association of Los Angeles
Spring, 1954*

	Better Prepared for Job	Better Beginning Job	Advantages in Promotion	Present Job Related to Major Course	Presently Employed by Named Employer
College A	81.7	70.0%	65.2%	75.0%	76.7%
College B	72.7	67.8	65.3	98.3	71.1
College C	68.1	58.3	50.0	98.6	70.8
College D	78.6	57.1	64.3	92.9	85.7
College E	61.1	42.6	57.4	66.6	81.5
College F	75.0	66.6	83.3	91.7	91.7
College G	50.0	50.0	50.0	75.0	100.0
Totals	71.2	61.3	60.9	88.8	75.6

Experiencing Western Civilization

LEO TREPP

"Experiencing Western Civilization," an experiment which grew out of the character of Napa and its community college, Napa Junior College, has just been successfully completed. The aim of the project was to take some of the junior college students to the sources of Western culture so that they might return home with new ideas, new incentives, and new projects for community improvement.

Napa is a small, rural town about 50 miles north of San Francisco. It is very conservative and has grown in population during the last few years almost in spite of itself. The town is populated by families in the middle income bracket, and since Napa is primarily a residential area, the citizens are employed in nearby cities. Industrial development has not been in step with population growth and needs, and taxes are very high. Culturally, Napa may not perhaps offer as much as other communities of equal size.

Napa has two great assets, however: the beauty of its setting and a good junior college with a fine staff of instructors and a student body of good intelligence. Napa people are not wealthy, and students stay at the junior college for financial reasons while intellectually they would do well in four-year schools. If Napa could be developed industrially, it could, because of

its location, climate, and beauty of countryside, become an ideal place in which to live. If it could be developed culturally, as a center, a summer home for culture even, it would gain financial strength, and, in turn, might be of priceless value to California. Such development, however, depends on enlightened leadership. To train such leadership for the town, some of the ablest junior college students were taken to Europe.

Early Planning

In 1954 while abroad, the writer felt that the possibility of bringing Napa students to Europe should be explored. Two conditions had to be met. First, the trip would have to be a study tour. The esthetic, spiritual, and economic value of culture would need to be explained. The efforts made by Europeans to rebuild their economic life would have to be shown. The desire to bring ideas home would have to be awakened. In addition, the trip would need to be as inexpensive as possible considering the financial potential of the Napa community.

The writer secured an interview with the head of the Student Exchange Office of the German Federal Republic at Bonn. It was decided that the University of Mainz might be the logical place for a study course. An old town, dating back to Roman times, Mainz had been battered severely during World War II and was

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struggling heroically to raise itself out of the rubble of the past and to rebuild its economy. The city had succeeded in being chosen the capital of one of the German Federal States, but above all, it had linked its economic future to a brand new university, erected on the ruins of the war, opened while the smoke of battle was almost still drifting in the air. The university has made a name for itself already; its medical school is beginning to be famous. On its campus are excellent new student homes, a gift of the McCloy Foundation. The university is specifically dedicated to promote better understanding between people of neighboring countries. From every point of view this was a logical choice.

The second step in the planning, then, was for the writer to see the head of the department of higher education for the State of Rheinland-Pfalz under whose jurisdiction such a program of study might come. He was cooperative and ready to make all technical arrangements, including housing and social activities, in addition to the academic preparations.

Finally, the writer met with Professor Galinsky, head of the department of American studies in the university, a man of wide knowledge and experience, and it was agreed to start the project.

Actual Planning

The approval of the Napa school administration and the counseling staff had to be secured. While they were agreed to grant junior college credit for the work, they suggested that the project be placed on a permanent basis.

The plan, as outlined and accepted, included the following features:

1. The travel through Europe and the study course to form a unit.
2. Emphasis, in tour and study, to be on three main points:
 - (a) Cultural heritage of Europe, common characteristics and dividing features.
 - (b) Problems of modern Europe.
 - (c) Thorough acquaintance with one country, in this case Germany—its culture, tradition, and population.
3. Objectives:
 - (a) To develop an understanding of Western civilization and its role in the development of American civilization.
 - (b) To enlarge the students' knowledge in the fields of history, art, literature, architecture, music, and in the understanding of social and political problems.
 - (c) To build appreciations for beauty, both natural and man made.
 - (d) To enlarge the "needs" of the students to include spiritual, esthetic, and cultural motivations.
 - (e) To provide, by comparison with other cultures, a deeper understanding and love for the American way of life.
 - (f) To contribute to the growth needs of the students, to the process of "self-actualization," as individuals and as future leaders of their community.
4. Direction of the course to be under the guidance of the writer as a certified California junior college teacher.

In the spring of 1955, Professor Galinsky, then in the United States, spent a few days in Napa on invitation by the college.

He met the teachers and students of the college and some of the community leaders, was entertained by the superintendent of schools and the president of the college, lectured to the students, and toured the campus and the Napa countryside. Thus he acquired a clear picture of the character and needs of Napa. After several discussions, it was decided to put the technical plans for the European phase of travel in the hands of the travel agency in the University of Mainz in order to receive accommodations away from the beaten track which would give closer contact with the population of individual countries.

The tour had to be worked out in every detail and had to be coordinated with the course of study. The courses, which were subject to the approval of the writer, were to be given by English-speaking German professors and had to fit certain objectives.

The number of student participants was not to exceed 25. Every student was checked through the counseling office, particularly on intelligence and citizenship. Beginning in November, weekly meetings were scheduled with the students and their parents. Every phase of the tour was discussed and individual and group suggestions incorporated whenever possible. As a result of this planning, there were no problems of any significance on the journey, no disciplinary difficulties, and no personality clashes. Group meetings of parents continued while the students were abroad and after their return.

The trip began two days after the close of school, and a detailed plan of the tour, including every luncheon stop and overnight stay, was in the hands of administration, parents, and students. After a day in New York, with sightseeing and a visit to

the United Nations, a stopover in Reykjavik and a tour of the town on the eve of the Icelandic elections determining the future of the American occupation force, and an over-night stop in Hamburg, the group arrived in Frankfurt, where a Mercedes bus was waiting to begin the trip through Europe. The tour proceeded through southern Germany, touched Austria, went through Switzerland, Italy, to Capri and back, traversed France from south to north, including Mt. St. Michel, went through Belgium and Holland to England. In London the students were the guests of the United Students of London University and stayed in one of the student "halls." Throughout the tour it was the writer's task to point out and explain the historical and cultural landmarks, to provide for visits to operas and museums, and to stress those items which would later be discussed in the study course. At Mainz there was a special formal reception with the Lord Mayor of the city present, the President of the University, the representative of the Student Exchange from Bonn, the head of the Department of Education, Professor Galinsky who spoke of Napa and Mainz, and the American Consul.

The Department of Education had gone to great efforts; some of the lectures had to be translated verbatim from German into English, and one or two departmental assistants were constantly available both in class and out of class. Outside activities and social events were arranged by the travel agency (a visit to Magic Flute in Koblenz), by the American consulate (folk dancing, group meetings), by the University (dance).

The course itself consisted of 54 hours of instruction, including directed study

periods and test quizzes. The lecturers were experts.

The subjects included:

1. The Cultural Heritage of Europe
 - (a) History of Western Europe since 1789
 - (b) Development of European Literature
 - (c) Development of European Art
 - (d) Development of European Music

All these courses were built on experiences encountered during the travel; they pointed out the things which all nations had in common and those that separated them; i.e., the differences in spirit and technique between Italian and German Renaissance art, etc.

2. The Problems of Modern Europe
Lectures and discussions were presented by representatives of the various countries—France, England, the German Foreign Office, etc., and included analyses of Germany, France, Great Britain, Italy, and Spain.
3. Germany
Lectures were on geography, history, economics, population, post-war developments, the Rhineland and its culture. Visits were made to nearby places of interest, and an extended campus tour, including a visit to the outstanding new dental and medical schools, rounded out this portion of the program.

Results and Evaluations

Students, parents, and community still speak of the tour, and numerous speaking engagements will afford opportunities to carry forth ideas to the community. The

excellent cooperation given by the newspapers of Napa Valley provided an outlet in print. The student correspondents wrote regularly, intelligently, and interestingly. The arrangements with the papers had been made beforehand and proved to be valuable to the community and to the educational objectives.

Class attendance during the course of study was excellent. While German universities do not check student attendance, and despite the fact that it was summer vacation time for the group with many attractive sights beckoning, the students were always present in their classrooms. At times discussions became so interesting to them, that classes had to be terminated to allow the next lecturer to start his class.

By their lightheartedness and friendliness, the students captured the campus. At first, they were not taken quite seriously, for German students are soberminded. But as they became better known, that attitude changed. This was the first group of Americans to come to Mainz as a group that was completely civilian, without official business or army ties. America, as it really is, presented itself to Mainz, and America, in the persons of the young people, won respect and affection. These were the remarks made by a number of Germans. The students were well aware that they represented America—it had been impressed upon them—and they did well.

The professors were impressed enough to express the sincere wish and hope that they might teach another, similar group again the next year. The State Department of Education was most urgent in advocating a repetition of the program.

This favorable outcome, however, should not obscure the existing differences and problems. The fundamental differ-

ence between the thinking of the American students and the Europeans, particularly the Germans, lay in the philosophies of life. The American students think pragmatically; their thinking is man-centered. Germans think in terms of absolute values. To them the monuments of culture, the philosophies of the ages, and the state are absolutes to which the individual is subordinate. One simply *must* grasp the grandeur and message of the cathedral of Chartres, of Mozart's music, the significance of the Rosetta Stone. The Americans asked: What do these things mean *today* in terms of human welfare, and evaluated them along these terms. To them, social conditions in a country are of greater concern than great buildings, and a talk with people from foreign lands of greater value than another visit to the British Museum. In Germany, especially, this difference could always be sensed.

While the students were well acquainted with social problems and interested in them, they were somewhat silent when they might have asked questions of lecturers and the native population. They discussed questions among themselves, and it is possible this basic difference in philosophy had something to do with it. However, school, home, and society had done a good job in awakening social consciousness in the young people and created the need for greater knowledge and action.

On the other hand, one great question has remained unanswered: Did the tour succeed in creating *new* needs and motivations in students as it was hoped it would. Only the future can answer this question. Yet, one thing is clear: Where there was a rudimentary need, it was strengthened and brought to full bloom.

Students who had been exposed at home to good music became enthusiastic. They never failed to look for it and to find it regardless of obstacles. Students whose upbringing was religious looked and found new inspiration constantly. Some, who liked antiquities, would go on their own to spend days at the British Museum; others, who had taken a fancy to the life of men in history, Napoleon, for instance, sought out every relic, every associated historical place. None of the students was insensitive to great art and great monuments. A true and deepened motivation, however, or so it seemed at the time, was found only in those who had cultural experiences in their homes.

This casts some doubt regarding American efficiency in school. The tour succeeded in awakening social conscience. It found the students to be much less awake to art, literature, and good music. They were somewhat deficient in their knowledge of basic Western civilization, even those rudiments which one should simply know or have heard about. Their pronunciation of foreign languages was insufficient to make them understood by the spoken word, although they might do so in writing. Perhaps it was respect for the awesomeness of the German university, but they were reluctant to consider themselves college students, and when asked what their junior college was, were reluctant in their answer and vague. Some of them felt they would like to return for the sake of the education Europe might be able to give them.

Have teachers in this country failed to stress the beauty, worth, and significance of academic education? Has the approach been too pragmatic? Have those disciplines been played down which are "lux-

ury" or "high brow"? Is this a local phenomenon in the Napa Valley community, resulting from its particular character or a general one? It may be that new emphases on cultural, or so-called "academic," studies may be indicated in the curriculum.

Plans for the Future

It is hoped that it will be possible to carry out a similar tour next year to strengthen the bonds between the two schools. It may be wise to invite some students of other California schools to participate. Perhaps it will prove desirable to establish some scholarships to enable deserving students to join the trip. Plans are now being made to bring students into selected European homes.

Ways have to be found to establish closer contact with German students. It is not possible to use the university facilities during the regular term. Since dormitories are filled and facilities heavily taxed, other means of wider contact have to be devised. At home, an effort will be made to maintain contact with the "alumni" of the tour in an effort to build on shared experiences.

The students who were on the tour feel that there is no better country in the world than the United States. It is hoped that their deepened love for this country, strengthened by their experiences abroad, will make them into leaders who will use their knowledge to the benefit of country and community.

A Comparison of Student Achievement in Office Machine Classes Meeting Daily and Three Times Weekly

KURT WEINGARTEN

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not any significant difference in student achievement—as measured by the scores on a number of tests—in two beginning office machine classes existed in which conditions were kept constant except for this one variable: One class met five times weekly and the other class three times weekly. In other words, in one class attendance was required five hours while in the other group attendance was required just three hours weekly. Instruction was offered during these class hours only. The students, however, had access to the office machines whenever no classes were held in the room (approximately three to four hours daily).

The experiment was conducted at Yakima Valley Junior College, Yakima, Washington, during the winter quarter of the 1955-1956 school year (January 3, 1956 through March 21, 1956).

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NATURE OF THE PROBLEM

The following design was used to determine the objective of the research:

One class in beginning office machines met daily for one class hour with student attendance required. The course carried two quarter hours of college credit.

Another (parallel) class in beginning office machines met three times weekly for one class hour (Monday, Wednesday, and Friday) with student attendance required on these three days. The course offered also two quarter hours of college credit.

All students had the opportunity to use the machines during other hours of the day when no classes were held in the room. The instructor, however, was not present during the "no-class" hours; instruction was offered during class hours only.

It should be noted here that past experience had shown that a minimum of approximately 50 class hours was required for the successful completion of all assignments and tests. Therefore, many students (especially from the group that met three times a week) needed to work on the assignments some hours in addition to the required class hours. (The first group met 60 class hours, the second group 36 class hours).

In both classes the same instructor used identical textbooks. The office machines were the same for both groups as were the tests, teaching methods, and facilities in general. The instruction periods were 50 minutes each, and both were held during the morning hours.

The following four types of electricity-driven office machines were used in the experiment:

1. Full-keyboard adding listing machines.
2. Ten-key adding listing machines.
3. Rotary calculators.
4. Keydriven calculators.

A separate timed test, one-half hour in length, was given each student after completion of the assignment of one type of machine. The number of correct answers presented the score on the test, and on each test, a student could obtain a maximum score of 100.

GROUPS PARTICIPATING

In the following discussion and analysis of data, Group I will indicate the class which met daily, while Group II will indicate the class which met three times weekly.

Group I included originally 12 students, three of whom withdrew during the first two weeks of the class. Group II included originally 14 students, three of whom withdrew during the first two weeks of the quarter. Reasons for the withdrawals given were full-time work and too heavy class schedules. For the experiment, therefore, the groups consisted of nine and 11 students, respectively. All participants were regular students, enrolled at Yakima Valley Junior College for at least 12 quarter hours of instruction. There were also two auditors in Group I, but

they did not take part in the experiment reported in this research.

Table I gives the number of men and women and the number of freshmen and sophomores in each group of students.

TABLE I

Number of Men and Women and Freshmen and Sophomores in Groups

	Men	Wo.	Fresh.	Soph.	Total
Group I	6	3	6	3	9
Group II ..	7	4	9	2	11

The mean percentile A.C.E. score for Group I was found to be 39.9 and the mean percentile A.C.E. score for Group II was found to be 36.9. The A.C.E. tests were given by members of the staff of Yakima Valley Junior College.

All students in both classes indicated that they had not had any previous instruction or experience in the operation of the office machine taught in the classes. None of the students showed any visible handicaps which might have prevented the efficient operation of any of the office machines.

The data presented in Table I and the information in the above paragraph seemed to indicate that there were no significant differences between the two groups insofar as ability to learn the operation of the office machines was concerned. The groups to be compared were believed to be evenly matched.

It should be noted that in order to avoid the possibility of some students' (especially the brighter ones) choosing the three-hour class, no announcement as to which class was to meet five times and which class was to meet three times was made until registration for the classes had

been completed. No transfers were made from one class to another. The tossing of a coin decided which class was to meet three times and which class was to meet five times weekly.

None of the students in either group was absent from class in excess of five times during the quarter. These absences were disregarded in the grading or scoring of the tests.

ANALYSIS OF DATA

After completion of the classes described, the achievement of the students as measured by grades and test scores was compared. Tables II and III show the comparison of these data. Table II gives the number and per cent of grades received by the students in the two groups.

TABLE II

Number of Students Receiving Grades A, B, C, D, and F

	Group I		Group II	
	No.	%	No.	%
Grade A*	2	22.2	1	9.1
Grade B*	2	22.2	4	36.3
Grade C*	3	33.3	2	18.2
Grade D*	0	0	4	36.3
Grade F*	2	22.2	0	0
Total	9	99.9	11	99.9

* The grade A was given for a score average of 85 or better, grade B for a score average of 70 to 84, grade C for a score average of 60 to 69, grade D for a score average of 55 to 59, and grade F for any score lower than 55. The score average was obtained by adding the individual test scores (four) of one student and dividing this sum by four. The above grading system has been used by the instructor for a number of years with the same tests and is believed to be equitable.

Table II shows that in Group I—the class that met daily—two students failed

the course, while none failed in Group II. It also indicates that there were twice as many A grades in Group I as there were in Group II. Table III gives the score averages obtained by the students in the two groups.

TABLE III

*Score Average Obtained by Each Student**

	Group I	Group II
Student 1	49	55
Student 2	49	55
Student 3	60	57
Student 4	65	58
Student 5	67	67
Student 6	77	69
Student 7	79	70
Student 8	87	72
Student 9	90	75
Student 10	81
Student 11	86
Total	623	745
Mean	69.2	67.7

* Score average was obtained by adding the four scores of the individual tests and dividing this sum by four.

Table III shows that the highest score average in Group I was 90, while the highest score average in Group II was 86. The table also indicates that the lowest score averages were 49 and 55 respectively for the two groups. The mean of Group I was found to be 69.2, and the mean of Group II was calculated to be 67.7. The actual difference of score average means therefore was 1.5.

Using the data presented in Table III, the following formulas were applied in determining whether any significant difference in the achievement of the students (as measured by the tests previously discussed) in the two groups existed:

$$S = \sqrt{\frac{\Sigma(X_1 - M_1)^2 + \Sigma(X_2 - M_2)^2}{(N_1 - 1) + (N_2 - 1)}}$$

$$S_D = S \sqrt{\frac{N_1 + N_2}{N_1 \cdot N_2}}$$

$$t = \frac{D}{S_D}$$

In these formulas X indicates the score, M the mean, N the number of students, S_D the standard error of difference between means, s the standard deviation, t the critical ratio, and D the actual difference between the mean scores.

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

After the computations involving the above formulas were completed, the critical ratio, or t was found to be .26, indicating that no significant difference existed in the achievement of the two groups as measured by the scores on the tests. (A critical ratio of 2.10 would have indicated significance at the five per cent level.) In other words, the difference obtained in this study could have been the result of chance.

Since it was found that no significant difference in the achievement of the students in the two groups existed, it was recommended that beginning office machines classes meet just three times weekly. It was the policy of this junior college to have classes meet five times weekly before

this study was undertaken. The recommendation set forth above was accepted by the administration of the Yakima Valley Junior College.

It should be stated that this one experiment does not, of course, necessarily lead to the conclusion that another study of the same type with office machines or other classes would produce the same results. It would be interesting to find out if other instructors in other schools would obtain results similar to the ones reported in this article. It is the opinion of this writer that the class that met three times weekly learned as well and as much as the class that met daily. Administrators in various institutions may also be interested to learn the results of studies of this type since they might help to distribute the class load of instructors more equitably.

It should further be noted that the students, too, seemed to prefer the three-hour class, although it should be understood that the course cannot be completed by working just three hours weekly, as was explained in a previous section of this report. Many students indicated that they would rather choose their own hours in which to work on the assignments rather than be required to attend class the same hour daily. It is recommended that instructors in other institutions conduct similar experiments in order to determine the reliability of the data reported in this study.

Campus Marriages—Are They Practicable?

LESTER A. KIRKENDALL

INTEREST in the advisability of campus marriages has increased tremendously in the past few years. In every college, many couples wish to marry while still in school. The result is a rash of questions on campus marriages. "Can a campus marriage be happy?" "Can we afford one?" "What difficulties or problems will we face?"

The decision on the advisability of a campus marriage should be reached apart from the fact that one or both of the partners may continue in college after marriage. Such questions as the following are crucial: Are the two mature enough to accept marital responsibilities? Are they genuinely grown up? Can they make a go of it financially? Are they ready for parenthood?

Some fear that a campus marriage will interfere with scholastic success. Studies suggest that this concern is groundless. Campus courtships probably interfere more with scholastic success than campus marriages. Marriage seems to stimulate scholastic achievement.

Should the wife plan to continue with her education? Some feel that, if her education is a matter of paramount importance, the average couple probably ought not attempt marriage. A limited income and the possible advent of children may

mean financial hardship if both husband and wife plan to complete their education.

The continuance of the wife's education has certain important advantages. She will probably never again have so favorable an opportunity for getting a formal education. A college education should make her a more interesting person and a better companion. Most colleges offer certain courses which the wife might take to help with family problems. Finally, her continued preparation to the point where she actually has some kind of professional competence is an important kind of insurance policy for the family.

In case of financial difficulties, the husband's education will almost certainly be placed ahead of the wife's since he is considered the family breadwinner. Many a girl willingly relinquishes her education to work while her husband finishes his formal education. Her attitude is that since the quality of the husband's education is important to both she should help improve it. Yet, the quality of the wife's education may have an important effect upon their satisfaction in marriage. One sees women dropping their plans for an education to go into routine, dead-end jobs in order to help their husbands through school. May not a woman in this situation find, unless there is careful planning, that educationally her husband has moved on and apart from her while she has been working? As the husband goes further and

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further with his educational program, his working wife may lag until in the end she is hopelessly left behind. What started as a cooperative venture can turn out to be a dividing experience unless the husband and wife can develop a real skill in sharing experiences and growing together.

An interesting aspect of campus marriages is the frequency with which couples are involved in a shift of the traditional marital and financial roles. This is particularly true where the wife is working and the husband going to school. For most couples, the shifting usually does not involve serious problems. Two factors can help in preventing it's becoming one. First the couple should be aware the shifting of roles will occur and realize that each will have to modify his traditional concepts of marriage. Second, living in a community in which many other couples are experiencing a similar reversal of roles will help to prevent disharmony. The young husband who puts on a clothespin sack and hangs out the family wash feels much less self-conscious if another young father across the way is doing the same thing.

Even though the couple may later shift to the more traditional masculine-feminine roles in marriage, their earlier role-shifting experience can be beneficial. Each sees the problems of marriage adjustment from the partner's viewpoint, and new values and concepts of cooperation are established. An example is the case of a young woman earning a good salary who continued to work after marriage. Her husband was a student and in a student group the wife discussed the resentment which she first experienced at having to give him money for the shirts and shoes he needed. This illustration produced considerable amusement, for in it the group

saw a reversal of the traditional masculine attitude toward the wife's clothing expenditures.

The crucial factor in many campus marriages is finances. No campus couple should enter marriage without giving this problem careful attention. Even so, the answer to "How much is enough to marry on?" is elusive. Some couples get along on an income which would be totally inadequate for others. It depends on the standard of living the two demand, their resourcefulness, their capacity for earning, their skill in dollar-stretching, and their willingness to accept certain discomforts to get an education.

Some married college students feel that they are in poor financial circumstances; yet they would probably not be better off if unmarried. Many college couples also think of life after graduation as being free, or relatively so, from financial worries. For most couples, this thinking is fallacious. Few families will ever be completely free from financial worries. While in a campus marriage they will live on a meager income and at a low standard, they are likely to find two relieving factors. One is that many of their friends will be living in the same fashion and enjoying it despite money shortages. Another is that they will comfort themselves by thinking that their condition will continue for only three years, or two years, or one year more.

After graduation they will likely be living in circumstances where more is required of them. They will need to occupy better quarters and to purchase a new car. They will want to start their family. Their income, though larger, is likely to seem just as inadequate as the income of their student days.

Considerable interest exists concerning financial assistance by parents. Some parents fear that if they help their children in marriage, the children will rely upon them for continued support. There does not seem to be much validity in this attitude. Most young couples want to become independent and fear that continued parental support may mean continued parental domination. Some, in fact, suggest that parents want to give support for exactly that reason.

The form which assistance takes is important. Money carries with it the implication of control more than help given in some other form. If a direct financial contribution is made to the support of the couple, it would be well to have the amount and length of time the support would continue clearly understood. The parents might help by equipping the household in certain respects, or by giving a lump sum as the dowry used to be given.

Occasionally parents have made a gift to their child at the time of marriage which was to constitute a part of their inheritance. If one in-law family provides help and the other in-law family cannot, or will not, that may very well create resentment and, later, a serious problem.

Help extended on a mutually satisfactory and business-like basis can be a good way for parents to help children toward a happy marriage. The problem is to differentiate between good business, sentiment, and imposition.

No couple should marry unless both are ready to accept parenthood. Some say,

"But we just can't have a child," and seem upset if this possibility is stressed. Unless a couple can accept the coming of a child, they should forego marriage. A child should come to parents who will accept him; anything else is tragedy.

All in all, if a couple expects to secure four years of college education, it would seem better to marry with only two years left rather than three or four. In that way, if they have a difficult time, there is a foreseeable end to it, with fewer years of the husband's fretting to get a paying job and less danger of a pregnancy's upsetting plans.

Whenever a couple begins to think about a campus marriage, there are two questions which, if applied to all deliberations, will help insure clear thinking. One is, "Is this a marriage which is ready to take place anyway?" If the couple can honestly say "yes" to this, they can then apply the second question, "Are the problems which concern us really problems which are a result of the campus situation, or are they simply the usual marriage adjustments?"

The solution is not to cast off all restraints and disregard all experience nor to dismiss the possibility of a campus marriage with an air of hopelessness. Rather, young people contemplating campus marriages and their parents should give hardheaded and earnest consideration to the advantages and disadvantages, the responsibilities, and the sacrifices associated with them.

Current Publications Received of Interest to Junior College Readers

Bennett, Margaret E. and Lewin, Molly. *Getting the Most Out of College*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957. Pp. vii+219. \$3.95.

This lively, provocative book speaks directly to the college student and tells how to enjoy and make use of every opportunity of the years at college. Based on latest research into problems of college students, *Getting the Most Out of College* will be a valuable guide for students in college, those preparing for college, parents, and those working with college students.

Bernard, Harold W. *Adolescent Development in American Culture*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1957. Pp. xii +644.

The book is addressed to parents, counselors, teachers, and those in late adolescence who will soon assume these adult roles. The materials have previously been used with such persons and a gratifying response has been obtained. Throughout, there is an attempt to show what the data presented mean in terms of guiding and helping the adolescent.

Bernard, Harold. *Toward Better Personal Adjustment* (2nd ed). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. xi+454. \$5.50.

The author's aim has been to bring to students the practical principles of positive mental hygiene, citing the psychological justification of the principles. Emphasis is on the application of mental hygiene principles to help individuals achieve efficiency, happiness, harmoniousness, and fullness in their daily living. The interplay of four

major aspects of the human personality are considered: mental, physical, emotional, and spiritual.

College Admissions. New York: College Entrance Examination, 1957. Pp. xiv+114. \$3.00.

This book presents the papers delivered at the Fourth Colloquium on College Admissions, which was sponsored by the College Entrance Examination Board and held in October, 1956, at Arden House, Harri-man, New York. The Colloquium program was planned along traditional educational lines, offering lectures by experts, discussions, "laboratory" exercises, and customary bull sessions at meals, between "classes," and in the "dormitories."

Cornell, Francis G. *The Essentials of Educational Statistics*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1956. Pp. xii+375. \$5.75.

Written by a nationally recognized authority, this modern introduction approaches statistics from the viewpoint of the reader whose interest is in their application to problems in education. It is based upon experience not only in the teaching of educational statistics but also on wide familiarity with their use in classroom teaching, school surveys, educational evaluation, and research in local and state school systems.

Cronyn, George W. *A Primer On Communism*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. 190. \$2.50.

This book contains more than 200 questions and answers on international communism. They were selected as typical questions most frequently asked on the sub-

ject. Presented in simple language, the material is designed to provide rudimentary knowledge of the subject while avoiding theoretical discussions of Communist ideology.

Dean, Vera Micheles. *The American Student and the Non-Western World*. (Inglis Lectures in Secondary Education) Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1956. Pp. 28. \$1.50.

To honor the memory of Alexander Inglis, 1879-1925, his friends and colleagues gave funds to the Graduate School of Education to establish a Lectureship. It is the purpose of the Lectureship to perpetuate the spirit of his labors and contribute to the solution of problems in the field of his interest.

Dedmond, Francis B. *Lengthened Shadows: A History of Gardner-Webb College, 1907-1956*. Boiling Springs, N.C.: Gardner-Webb College, 1957. Pp. xvi+219.

Here is the story of the growth and struggle of Gardner-Webb College from its beginning as a denominational high school to the end of the College's academic year, 1955-1956.

DeGrazia, Alfred. *The American Way of Government*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. xvii+971. \$6.95.

This book is aimed at describing the principles and operations of the American national government in simple, clear, and direct language.

Diehl, Katherine Smith. *One Librarian*. New Brunswick, N.J.: The Scarecrow Press, 1956. Pp. 165.

This is the story of the author's fifteen years of experience as a librarian.

Easton, Stewart C. *The Heritage of the Past*. New York: Rinehart & Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. xx+845. \$7.90.

This book is an alternative edition of a text of the same title, *The Heritage of the Past*,

which covers the civilizations of the world from the earliest times to the close of the Middle Ages. The preparation of this alternative edition was undertaken at the request of a number of colleges which found it impossible to devote a full semester to the period prior to 1500 and therefore needed a text with a later finishing date.

First One Hundred and Fifty Years. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. xxv+242. \$7.50.

This is a comprehensive history of John Wiley and Sons, Incorporated, 1807-1957. Because of the diversity of the subject matter covered by the company's books no one person could be expected to write an authoritative history of the firm, and therefore the task required specialists in each area of knowledge, particularly those with an expertness in the bibliography of the subject.

Foerster, Norman (ed.). *American Poetry and Prose*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1957. Pp. xx+1664. \$8.75.

This completely revised edition is designed to serve both the historical and the critical approaches to literature. It assumes the relevancy of the methods which historical scholars worked out in the nineteenth century and refined in the early twentieth, methods largely oriented toward the sciences. Even more, it assumes the relevancy of the methods developed by scholar-critics of various types since about 1920, methods largely oriented toward philosophy and the arts.

Gregg, John Robert, Fries, Albert C., Rowe, Margaret and Travis, Dorothy L. *Applied Secretarial Practice* (4th ed). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. xii+500.

Applied Secretarial Practice is a textbook that has, in its various editions, been a leader in its field for over 35 years. Many changes have been made to make it an effective classroom text and a more valuable reference source for the teacher, student, and office worker.

- Harding, Lowry W. *Essays in Educology*. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1956. Pp. xxv+186. \$2.50.

The intent of the editor, in developing this volume, was to help education—not to harm or ridicule it. Teachers need all the humor and perspective they can muster, in these days of strong tensions and sharp attacks on public education. This is the second anthology to be developed in the campaign to preserve humor and perspective on the importance of the human factor in professional education.

- Harrington, Karl Pomeroy and Scott, Kenneth. *Selections from Latin Prose and Poetry*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1956. Pp. xxiv+624. \$5.00.

This book is intended especially for college freshmen, though its possible usefulness is by no means confined to such classes. The text of the various selections has been drawn from the best available sources. The spelling lets the student realize that usage varies, but, for his practical use, it has been made reasonably uniform.

- Hurley, Beatrice Davis. *Curriculum for Elementary School Children*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1957. Pp. xii+402. \$5.50.

The book is designed as a text for students training to be elementary school teachers, for classroom teachers on the job, for coordinators and curriculum consultants, and for supervisors of elementary school programs.

- Cook, Lloyd and Elaine. *School Problems in Human Relations*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. xi+292. \$5.50.

The material in this book has been used in both undergraduate and graduate courses in human relations education. It is recommended for courses or workshops in human relations problem solving, school-community relations and school administration social education.

- Koos, Earl Lomon. *Marriage*. New York: Henry Holt and Co., 1957. Pp. vii+344. \$4.00.

This revised edition is written primarily for the student who makes his first—possibly only—excursion into that portion of the academic world which devotes itself to matters concerning marriage and the family. This edition is in many respects quite different from its predecessor. There is a more complete divorcement from Ernest Grove's writing upon which the first edition drew in part, and more material is included in those sections which deal with the individual prior to his entering the dating and courtship stages of his life.

- Lindsey, Margaret and Gruhn, William T. *Student Teaching in the Elementary School*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1957. Pp. viii+214. \$3.75.

This book is addressed to student teachers in elementary schools. The content has been selected to avoid duplication of material to which the student has given attention previously. The intention is to help students bring into practical focus the many concepts, attitudes, and skills acquired as a result of previous experience. In student teaching, more than at any other time in the college program, it is possible for students to integrate their learning and to test theory in practice. This book should help in that process.

- Mandelbaum, Hugo and Conte, Samuel. *Solid Geometry*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1957. Pp. vi+261. \$4.00.

A new textbook in a field of knowledge as classical as solid geometry needs some justification. The authors feel that the teaching of elementary mathematics should ultimize to the fullest possible extent the concepts and principles developed by modern mathematics. In this textbook the formalism of the traditional approach to Euclidean geometry is replaced by an informal treatment based on some of these inspiring and unifying concepts.

McCrimmon, James M. *Writing With a Purpose* (2nd ed.). New York: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1957. Pp. xiv+607. \$4.25.

Although much of this text has been rewritten, the basic theme of purpose, the attitude towards linguistic conventions, and the major emphases of the first edition have not been changed. It is written in the belief that the most useful approach to the problems of composition is through a serious concern with purpose.

Meyer, Adolphe E. *An Educational History of the American People*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957. Pp. xx+444. \$6.00.

Written in a lively, yet scholarly style, this book examines the salient landmarks of American educational history from the early seventeenth century to the recent past. It contains a fuller treatment of the educational history of the twentieth century than has heretofore been put into a general history of American education. Material will be found on adult and worker's education and on intercultural and international education.

Mills, Herbert H. and Douglass, Harl R. *Teaching in High School*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1957. Pp. ix+516. \$5.75.

The principal purpose of this book is to orient the prospective high-school teacher to his responsibilities to his pupils and to society. The chief emphasis is upon the effective application of sound principles of learning and teaching in obtaining the objectives of secondary education.

Practical Cookery. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1957. Pp. vii+364. \$4.00.

The scope of the present edition remains practically the same as the other editions but the material has been completely rewritten. The primary aim of the authors is to prepare a book for the person inexperienced in food preparation. Each section begins with a general discussion of the characteristics of the food to be prepared

followed by basic recipes and suggested variations.

Robbins, Wilfred W., Weier, T. Elliot, and Stocking, C. Ralph. *Botany: An Introduction to Plant Science* (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. ix+578. \$6.95.

Designed to emphasize the plant as a whole as a living, functioning organism, the second edition gives increased stress to plant physiology. The discussion of photosynthesis and respiration is accurately yet simply presented and illustrated by diagrams similar to those used for the nitrogen and life cycles.

Rodee, Carlton Clymer, Anderson, Totton James, and Christol, Carl Quimby. *Introduction to Political Science*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. xiii+655. \$6.00.

Here is a broad, comprehensive introduction to political science. Although the authors have not attempted to treat any topic exhaustively, no field or aspect of political science has been omitted. Thus, the book will serve both as a starting point for more advanced study in political science and also as a source of basic political information for the student who will take only one course in this field.

Rosenstengel, William Everett and Eastmond, Jefferson N. *School Finance*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1957. Pp. vii+442. \$6.50.

The purpose of this book is to provide a thorough discussion of the theory and practice of public school finance. It is designed to serve as a text for colleges and university students who are preparing to become school administrators and as a day-by-day guide for superintendents, principals, and business managers. Carefully phrased topics for study and discussion are included with each chapter to provide the student with further applications of the principles and to direct him in more detailed exploration of the many areas of school finance.

Smith, Rolland R. and Ulrich, James F. *Solid Geometry*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1957. Pp. v+266.

This text in solid geometry includes chapters on thinking in Three Dimensions, Perpendicular Lines and Planes, Parallel Lines and Planes, Dihedral and Polyhedral Angles, Locus and Projections, Polyhedrons, Spherical Volumes, Axioms and Definitions.

Smyth, Herbert Weir. *Greek Grammar*. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1957. Pp. xviii+784. \$10.

This book, apart from its greater extent and certain differences of statement and arrangement, has, in general, the same plan as the author's *Greek Grammar for Schools and College*. It is a descriptive, not an historical, nor a comparative, grammar. Though it has adopted many of the assured results of comparative linguistics, especially in the field of analogy, it has excluded much of the more complicated matter that belongs to a purely scientific treatment of the problems of morphology.

Stroup, Francis. *Measurement in Physical Education*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1957. Pp. xii+192. \$3.50.

The primary purpose of this book is to supply an understandable text that will assist professional students of physical education with measurement and the competencies necessary for using measurement as a tool for improving physical education programs.

Swenson, Hugo N. and Woods, J. Edmund. *Physical Science for Liberal Arts Students*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. vi+332.

The purpose of this book sets it apart from most texts in this field. It has a single aim: to describe the special methods and procedures which have been found useful and effective in the natural sciences. It answers the question: "What is science and how do the natural sciences differ from other intellectual fields?"

Troelstrup, Arch W. *Consumer Problems and Personal Finance* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957. Pp. xvii+511. \$6.00.

This book is designed to train college students and adults for more effective personal, family, and group living. It deals with life as a whole rather than in its separate parts. Thus, the subject matter has been drawn from any discipline that helps the reader gain better insight in information on a consumer problem. Material has been included from the fields of psychology, economics, nutrition, government, sociology, and homemaking.

Traxler, Arthur E. *Techniques of Guidance*. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1957. Pp. xiii+374. \$6.00.

The author has for nine years been associated with the Educational Records Bureau, the main function of which is to assist its member institutions in the use of objective techniques in guidance. A considerable number of articles, bulletins, and other manuscripts on testing and guidance have been published and some are in unpublished form. This book consists of an organization, revision and synthesis of these materials, together with other material written specifically for it.

Tuttle, Alva M. *Elementary Business and Economic Statistics*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957. Pp. xiii+663. \$6.75.

This elementary, complete, and clearly written textbook on business statistics emphasizes techniques rather than an understanding of statistical inference and is designed for the course usually required of all business students in the junior or sophomore year. The author gives special attention to covering the essential material in an understandable way. He includes lengthy and detailed explanations of even the simplest concepts and techniques, with numerous examples worked in full. The most elementary steps in algebra and arithmetic are spelled out in detail. Thus, the

text is suitable for students who lack secondary school mathematics.

Umbreit, Myron, Hunt, Elgin F., and Kinter, Charles V. *Economics* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. xiv+637. \$6.00.

This book will give beginning students an understanding of the nature of economic activity and economic organization. Emphasis is placed on explaining the operation of a free enterprise system, and on applying the knowledge thus gained to the economy of the United States.

Weier, T. E., Stocking, C. R., and Tucker, J. M. *Botany: A Laboratory Manual* (2nd ed.). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1957. Pp. viii+175.

An attempt has been made to make this manual as widely adaptable as possible. Material is presented that will be covered in a year in most elementary courses. Thus, the instructor has the option of choosing those exercises, or parts of exercises, that best fulfill his particular needs.

Williams, Cecil B. and Ball, John. *College Writing*. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1957. Pp. xix+475. \$3.75.

College Writing is not committed to any one specialized approach or terminology in its work of building writing skills. Included is what our experience has shown to be helpful, combining rhetoric, nonprescriptive

grammar, spelling, and punctuation with approaches derived from linguistics, psychology, and anthropology. These approaches are all means to the goal of effective written communication; none is treated as an end in itself. They have meaning and validity only in the context of the total writing situation.

Williams, Clement C. and Farber, Erich A. *Building An Engineering Career* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957. Pp. x+299. \$4.75.

This book, based upon a course which had been conducted over a number of years, has been written to enable the engineering student to enter upon his study advantageously and to work efficiently from the beginning. It aims at both orientation and motivation.

Womanpower, National Manpower Council. New York: Columbia University Press, 1957. Pp. xxxiii+371. \$5.00.

Womanpower, the latest of the National Manpower Council's continuing studies of the nation's manpower resources, focuses on the role of women in paid employment in the United States. The Council deals with the significance of women's participation in the labor force from the viewpoint of the country's total manpower resources. In its statement the Council recommends ways of insuring the more effective development and utilization of the nation's womanpower resources.



from the **EXECUTIVE SECRETARY'S DESK**

JESSE P. BOGUE

THE ORIGIN of the expression "straws in the wind" has sometimes been identified with tramps. It is claimed that after sleeping in a haystack at night they arose in the morning, threw a few straws into the air, watched the direction they were blown, and then set out for the day with the wind to their backs. We cannot vouch for the correctness of this genesis of the old expression. Neither do we intend to make it applicable to present trends for junior and community colleges by inferring that they are taking the direction of the easiest course of action, and certainly we do not imply that those who are guiding the work of these institutions are educational tramps. With these limitations well understood, therefore, we believe that a short review of some of the more recent events will be of interest to our readers in respect to trends and directions of the two-year college movement.

One of the most recent events took place in Washington, D.C. It was an off-the-record session lasting for a day and a half. Those attending represented about the highest possible level of men of influence in business, industry, and an equal number of lay persons directly concerned

with education at the grassroots. The president and executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges were invited to participate in this highly important meeting. The entire afternoon of the first day's session was devoted to a consideration of the place and functions of the two-year colleges. Following an informal presentation by the executive secretary of facts, policies, principles, and plans for these institutions, he was kept busy for the remainder of the afternoon answering pointed questions. Business and industrial representatives were deeply interested in the contribution which the two-year colleges are making and can make to the general welfare of communities, the several states, and the nation. They were equally interested in the manner in which these colleges can cooperate at the local level to produce the kind of employees business and industry must have for the kind of technology we have developed.

Another point of common agreement and concern was the control and support for two-year colleges. Local, state, and the federal governments have been disturbed by the trend for tax monies to be drained off into centralized agencies, especially

into the United States treasury, and as a result the companion trend for citizens to look more and more to these central agencies for funds to meet the needs of many state and local functions. The facts presented to the sessions showed that community colleges for the most part are locally controlled by the citizens through elected officials; that they are largely supported from local taxes and tuitions; that they are especially sensitive to local needs for education beyond the high school identified by surveys in the local community. There were expressions of interest and approval of this basic concept of community colleges in that it is an encouraging sign for the return of essentially local problems and issues into the hands of the people.

In June President Eisenhower delivered an address at Williamsburg, Virginia, in which he argued that the time had come for the several states to re-assume some functions which the federal government has been supporting. In his address he pointed out that his Cabinet and the governors of the states should designate those functions now supported in whole or in part by the federal government but which the states could better assume and finance. He recommended that adjustments in federal and state taxation policies be made to enable the states to pay for these functions. He proposed that the Committee identify responsibilities likely to require both federal and state efforts and recommend the proper division of responsibility. The President's thinking has received a great deal of favorable comment throughout the nation.

The President's proposal has resulted in the appointment of the Joint Federal-State Action Committee. It has already

recommended that vocational education and the school lunch program be returned to the several states. Hand in hand with this proposal is the recommendation that certain war-time taxes collected by the United States be given up so that the states may collect them as they see fit. Some of these are: taxes on cabarets, gaming devices, bowling alleys, club dues, initiation fees, safe deposit boxes, and local telephone calls. To show how "little grains of sand become great deserts," the federal income from tax on local telephone calls alone amounts to \$370,000,000 a year! Both propositions go hand in hand. If the several states, political sub-divisions and the people by voluntary contributions are to assume greater responsibility for local functions, such as education, then they must be permitted to collect available taxes locally and have enough money left to make voluntary contributions. The thinking of the persons assembled in Washington was definitely in line with certain far-reaching concerns voiced by the President and the governors of the several states.

Another area of common interest was economy. The questions are raised time and again, "How are we going to build enough schoolrooms and pay for them? How are we going to find the money to secure enough good teachers and pay them what they need and deserve?" One man voiced the sentiment that we have been living off of nature in America, but now we must learn to live with nature. Income in the future from the exploitation of natural resources cannot be expected to be nearly as great as in the past. Therefore, the economy of attending higher educational institutions when students may live at home had an appeal. The be-

lief and demonstration that excellent functional school plants can be built without the expense of decorative frills had an appeal. Even if a community is wealthy enough to afford the more expensive types of plants, is it justified in view of the relatively low salaries being paid to the administrators and teachers?

We know, for example, of a community which built its high school with marble. Then there was little money left to pay the teachers. We read the other day of a community which erected a new hospital and spent so much money that it was standing idle for want of funds to operate it. If we are going to argue for certain economies in junior colleges for students, their parents and the communities, great care should be given in planning plants to make them economical, also.

The participants in the Washington meeting did not attempt to reach conclusions, adopt resolutions, or present findings. There was a definite conviction that our problems in education cannot be successfully solved, however, unless and until the several states attack their own issues on a state-wide basis, and unless local communities assume their full share of participation. This idea is another straw in the wind. It is recommended by the *Second Report to the President* by The President's Committee on Education Beyond the High School. It is one of the important functions of the U.S. Office of Education to make studies and provide consulting services to stimulate the states to do this kind of work. One of the most recent appointments in the U.S. Office of Education was that of Dr. S. V. Martorana who has been made Chief for State and Regional Organization. His main

function will be to help the states and regions help themselves.

* * *

The National Citizens Council for Better Schools has as one of its aims the encouragement and stimulation of citizen participation. In October there will be an important roundtable composed of lay people. One of the participants has requested 50 copies of "The Development of Community Colleges," written by the executive secretary. He states in his request, "This is a very important group of laymen and I would like very much for them to have the benefit of this statement." Laymen generally are intrigued by the scheme to have occupational advisory committees appointed to work in cooperation with junior colleges. Such committees can be very helpful in guiding the development of courses of study to make them vital, realistic, and applicable not only for the jobs which must be performed in a technical manner but also for educational programs to assist workers to be the kind of people they ought to be for successful employment, home life, and citizenship. In short, there are definite areas of common interest and concern between educators and laymen to keep the greatest possible degree of control and support of education in the hands of the citizens in the states and communities, to stimulate participation and cooperation in education, and to assist in making educational processes vital for the times in which we are living.

We believe that the American people are committed by tradition and a deep conviction to a way of life that depends on the best possible education for the rank and file of the people. They know that our

future prosperity and security are inextricably bound to the kind, degree, and extent of education which the vast majority of the people may secure. The President's Committee has described this education beyond the high school as having "quantity, quality, diversity, and accessibility." It is a foregone conclusion that the American people will insist on this education for their children. They will make provision for it, and *they will have it*. No amount of talk about limiting education to the few will make sense to the people of this country. They could readily issue a manifesto to the effect that every person shall have an opportunity for appropriate education up to the limit of his capacity and as a continuing essential service in our society and economy.

* * *

Some of the most encouraging signs of the times are to be found in the studies, surveys, and plans of a number of forward-looking states. On our desk are reports from California, Florida, Illinois, Maryland, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Texas, and Washington; other states are in various stages of preparing their studies. We would suggest that all states may profit by the examples of those we have cited. Some of the best are:

The Community College in Florida's Future, Report of the State Board of Education by the Community College Council, 1957. Tallahassee: State Department of Education, 71 pp.

Illinois Looks to the Future in Higher Education, Report of the Higher Education Commission to the Governor and Legislature of the State of Illinois, 1957. Chicago: Daniel McMaster, Museum of Science and Industry, 219 pp.

Minnesota's Stake in the Future, Higher Education 1956-70, Report of the Governor's Committee on Higher Education, 1956. St.

Paul 1: State Deptment of Education, 98 pp.

Needs of Higher Education in Maryland, Report of the Commission appointed by Governor McKeldin, 1955. Baltimore: State Department of Education, 127 pp.

Statement and Recommendations by the Board of Regents for Meeting the Needs of Higher Education in New York State, 1956. Albany 1: State Department of Education, 22 pp.

Regents Position on Additional Higher Education Facilities on Long Island, 1957. Albany 1: State Department of Education, 16 pp.

Study of the Need for Additional Centers of Public Higher Education in California, 1957. Sacramento: State Department of Education, 172 pp. This is the third state report on this subject since 1948.

We can refer the reader to other excellent state studies, but we have used the foregoing to illustrate the point that they are not merely studies filed away to collect cobwebs and dust. Action has resulted. Florida appropriated \$12,000,000 in 1957. All present community colleges are being expanded. One new college is in operation this fall and five others are slated to begin work within a year or two. Projections have been made for a total of 31 colleges when the long-term state policy, validated by the legislature, has been completed. The Illinois legislature increased state assistance to \$200 per year per student compared to \$100 previously appropriated. Two new branches of the Chicago City Junior College have been established and one at Chicago Heights in Bloom Township. Minnesota appropriated funds for the junior colleges for the first time in history—\$200 per year per student. Maryland has established four new junior colleges this fall: Essex and Catonsville in Baltimore County, one at Bel Air, and another at Frederick. Two new commu-

nity colleges are being established in New York State, expansions are being made at several others, a number of additional ones are projected, and the state will vote this fall on a bond issue with \$56 million earmarked for community college plants to be matched by local funds. California will have a new college in operation this fall at Artesia, and two new ones have been approved—one in Siskiyou County and another at Palo Alto. And so the story goes to show that the alert states which are blueprinting their plans are aroused by the necessity of action now and are up and at the job.

Attention to the need for two-year colleges has been given in the Congress this past year. One of the leaders in this matter is Senator Clifford Case of New Jersey who introduced two bills, S. 2763 and S. 2810, the former to stimulate the several states to take action for planning higher education and the latter to encourage them to act for the establishment and expansion of community colleges. Both bills

provide for short-term programs to assist the states in a modest way to get busy as states and communities not only for plans but also for action. We suggest that both bills are worthy of careful study and discussion and an expression of public opinion to Senator Case and to the Senators and Representatives of all the states. If nothing more than serious public discussion results from Senator Case's bills, we believe that good will have been accomplished. Good has already resulted in rather wide discussions and by way of newspaper editorials and magazine articles.

We believe that the "straws in the wind" are showing that the wind is in the right direction. We propose to raise the sails and take advantage of its favors, to change the figure of speech from land to water! The haven? Education in quantity, quality, variety, and accessibility to meet the ever-growing needs of youth and adults in a dynamic democratic society.

The Junior College



JESSE P. BOGUE

Ventura College, Ventura, California, inaugurated a program this year to recognize outstanding alumni. A selection committee composed of senior and retired faculty members was appointed. The committee established criteria as follows: professional accomplishment, public service, and character. The committee limited the first selection to alumni in the classes of 1931 to 1942, since the college was established in 1931. Nominations were made from the faculty at large and other interested persons. The original list of nominees included 19 people which was reduced to six and then finally to three.

The committee selected the following representative and distinguished alumni:

Mrs. Mildred Reed Wallace, Class of 1931, who, as director of education in the Ventura elementary schools, has made a notable contribution to public education in her own hometown and has been active in professional, civic, and religious organizations (B.E., UCLA, 1933; M.S., Education, University of Southern California, 1953).

John Edward Gallagher, now acting manager, mechanical engineering, in the

New York office of the Shell Oil Company, after rising steadily in the company since 1941 (B.S., Mechanical Engineering, with distinction, Stanford University, 1938; six-year Mechanical Engineering degree, Stanford, 1940).

Lt. Cmdr. Wendell J. Furnas, USN, class of 1937, intelligence specialist, who prefaced a naval career beginning in 1942 by teaching at the University of Shanghai and reporting for Shanghai journals (A.B., University of California, 1939, with honors, Phi Beta Kappa).

* * *

North Idaho Junior College, Coeur d'Alene, Idaho, developed an excellent public relations program one facet of which includes items printed in the columns of the *Coeur d'Alene Press*, the local daily newspaper. Recently the newspaper published a series of articles on the development of community colleges written by the executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges and published in five issues of the paper. In announcing the articles the *Press* had this to say:

"The growing importance of junior colleges in the field of higher education has a special significance for Coeur d'Alene and Kootenai County, the home of North Idaho Junior College.

"Enrollment in junior colleges has grown rapidly in the past few years, and educators recognize the contribution such colleges are making. They occupy a position that can't be filled by other educational institutions.

"Prospects are that North Idaho Junior College, along with other such institutions, will grow even more rapidly in the next decade and fill an even more important place in Idaho's educational picture.

"Because of this, the *Press* today is beginning a series of five articles written by Jesse P. Bogue, executive secretary of the American Association of Junior Colleges. The articles are taken from a report, 'The Development of Community Colleges,' soon to be published by the Association."

* * *

Gardner-Webb College, Boiling Springs, North Carolina, has developed an extensive system of services to the people of the community. This development is of special interest because Gardner-Webb is a Baptist-supported junior college which began as a high school in 1907. It is celebrating its golden anniversary this year. The service program of the college is designed to meet the educational, spiritual, emotional, and physical needs of the community. Through the department of church-community development, directed by W. Lawson Allen, from 1,000 to 2,000 adults study each year in the extension schools co-sponsored by the college and local Baptist associations.

The Gardner-Webb College Community Health Center is a modern 26-bed

hospital located on the college campus, serving the college and the community. About 1,500 hospital patients and 1,800 out-patients are treated annually.

The college provides community services through its department of guidance. One of the features of this department is the service of a consulting psychologist to the public without charge. Among other functions of special advantage to the community is a recreation program conducted on the campus. Facilities include a wading pool and play equipment for small children and a swimming pool for older children and adults. These services provided for the community are in addition to the regular collegiate programs provided for 823 students.

* * *

Maryland Junior Colleges. In September of this year four new junior colleges were established and began their programs in the state of Maryland:

Catonsville Community College
Baltimore, Maryland
Dr. Oliver H. Laine, Dean

Essex Community College
Baltimore, Maryland
Mr. Melvin S. Koch, Jr., Dean

Frederick Community College
Frederick, Maryland
Mr. Duval W. Sweadner, Dean

Harford Junior College
Bel Air, Maryland
Dr. John W. Musselman, Dean

It is expected that two or three colleges more will be organized within the next year or two. The establishment of the four new colleges gives Maryland a 100 per cent increase of new institutions organized

this year, the largest percentage organized in any state during the present year. With the establishment of Catonsville and Essex Community Colleges, Baltimore County now has three junior colleges—one in the city of Baltimore, and two in the county at large.

* * *

From Clark College, Vancouver, Washington, comes news of Miss Rosa G. Webber, instructor in shorthand and typing, who has recently published the textbook, *Webber Speed Stenography*. To introduce the new and faster method of shorthand, Miss Webber conducted a two-week workshop last June for high school and college teachers of stenography at Clark's applied arts building. The new method cuts in half the time it takes for beginners to develop speed and accuracy and is based on simple symbols which can easily be mastered in one year by high school and college students.

Miss Webber is also the author of *Personal and Vocational Typing*, which was published in 1953. She holds a bachelor's degree from Oregon State College and a master's degree from the State College of Washington.

* * *

Briarcliff College, Briarcliff Manor, New York, offers, in addition to its regular curriculum, field trips which students take to museums, art galleries, hospitals, theaters, laboratories, concert halls, newspaper offices, department stores, union offices, historic sights, factories, social agencies, radio studios, United Nations, and publishing houses. Because of the school's proximity to New York City, Briarcliff students take at least a dozen field trips, some of which relate directly to a student's major and some of which are elected from

a wide variety of offerings. All field trips are faculty planned and related to the student's academic program. The day before a trip, student groups are given regular "briefings" by faculty members on outstanding points of interest about the places they are to visit. These briefings serve as a forum for student questions and provide an opportunity for instructors to relate the coming trips to classroom discussions.

The results of the field trip program are reflected in the following comment of a freshman after a trip to an industrial plant: "Now that I've seen with my own eyes what the textbook is talking about, the book makes more sense."

* * *

Pasadena City College, Pasadena, California, has organized a Faculty Speakers Bureau whose members may be called upon to give talks to groups in the Pasadena junior college district. The Bureau was organized with the thought of making additional contribution to the culture and progress of the community. A Directory has been published so that interested groups may know the speakers and the subjects on which they will speak. Subjects and speakers are organized around the following main headings: administration, with six speakers; art, seven speakers; business, four speakers; counseling, fifteen speakers; engineering and technology, seven speakers; English, eighteen speakers; foreign language, one speaker; life science, six speakers; mathematics and astronomy, one speaker; music, nine speakers; nursing, three speakers; physical education (men), two speakers; physical education (women), two speakers; physical science, eight speakers; and social science, five speakers.

It is interesting to observe the spread of subjects presented. For example, some of the topics are as follows: Your Community College; The Clothing and Textile Industry; A Dollar Saved—Better than a Dollar Earned; Footprints on the Muir Trail (slides); Surveying for Tunnels; How to Increase Your Word Power; Central and South American Countries (slides); The Life Zones of the Sierra Nevadas—Natural History—Trees, Shrubs, and Animals (slides); Making and Using Amateur Telescopes; How to Enjoy Music; Nursing as a Career; Health Education; Physical Education in Some European Countries (slides); Recent Developments in Anthropology; Why Governments Fail. A total of 48 speakers and 23 departments are available to deliver lectures in 15 general areas.

* * *

Campbell College, Buies Creek, North Carolina, was cited in a recent release from Marquis Who's Who, Inc., Chicago 11, Illinois. The citations were concerned with widespread efforts to improve quality and availability of college education. The donor cited in connection with a gift to Campbell College was the Norfolk Contracting Company. Marquis Who's Who, Inc. recently published the following statement:

"A gift of \$50,000 of the Norfolk Contracting Co. of Norfolk, Va., to Campbell College, Buies Creek, N.C., provided the basis for a capital development effort that resulted in a total of more than six times this amount. As a direct result of the challenge offered by this single gift, \$315,000 was raised. Here is an excellent example of how the head of a small concern interested in a single small college can multiply the effect of its philanthropy

many times over. The allotments of the industrial giants to educational philanthropy guide the climate of corporate thinking, but the generous gift of a smaller concern is a direct challenge to the constituency of the small college."

* * *

Clinton Junior College, Clinton, Iowa. According to an article appearing in the *Clinton Herald*, Wednesday, August 14, "A major expansion of Clinton Junior College is foreseen in the next decade to accommodate an anticipated enrollment of 300 day students.

"The 300 students may require building facilities of nine classrooms, three laboratories, one shop, library, offices, student center, auditorium-gymnasium, auxiliary space, and parking area.

"The number of college faculty members required to instruct an estimated 300 students is 15 full-time equivalent instructors.

"Confronted with this expansion, the authorities soon will have to make various housing decisions:

"1. Shall the college become a separate school, with its own campus?

"2. Shall the college be housed adjacent to the high school, using some of its facilities, such as laboratories?

"3. Shall the college and the high school be operated as a five-year integrated school, using common facilities and personnel?"

* * *

Vincennes University, Vincennes, Indiana (a junior college), has received a grant of \$250,000 from the Housing and Home Finance Agency for the construction of a student union building. Plans for the construction of the building are being developed by George M. Ewing, Sr. of

Philadelphia. It is hoped that construction will begin this fall.

Vincennes University is now completing a campaign for \$200,000 for the construction of a new library building. An additional \$25,000 toward this cause has been given by the Eli Lilly Foundation, Inc. of Indianapolis. It is expected that work on the library will begin by January, 1958.

* * *

A Handbook for Instructional Leaders on the Use of Encyclopedias in Schools, which is the report of a workshop sponsored by the education department of the University of Washington, may be obtained without cost from the College of Education, University of Washington, Seattle, Washington. This handbook is a valuable resource for teacher-training institutions, library schools, and particularly for school administrators. The guide includes criteria for evaluating reference materials and determining a school's needs for such materials, suggestions for acquainting teachers with the content and uses of reference sets, and other specific and practical suggestions based on two weeks of searching discussion among a group of administrators, teachers, librarians, and publishing company consultants.

* * *

Organized labor's position on junior colleges is contained in a resolution passed by the American Federation of Labor. This resolution was published in the January, 1944, issue of the *Junior College Journal*. We are publishing it again in order to give our present readers the benefit of the position which organized labor took in 1944.

Labor's Statement

At its annual convention in Boston, October 4-14, The American Federation of Labor unanimously adopted the following resolution on junior colleges submitted by its Committee on Education:

WHEREAS, Organized Labor has always advocated education among the masses of working people in order that they be better prepared for the battle of livelihood and fulfill their respective places within the movement and in society in general, and

WHEREAS, The American Federation of Labor, through persistent and proper activities, was instrumental in instituting the program of free education for the children of this nation, including high school training, and

WHEREAS, It is universally recognized that the individual who is properly educated and trained finds suitable employment more readily than one who possesses only a limited amount of schooling, and

WHEREAS, Because of tuition costs, together with the need for subsistence, the average person is unable to acquire any desired schooling above the regular high school courses, and

WHEREAS, At the present time, in certain localities throughout the nation, there are certain schools known as junior colleges, where regular university studies are offered, tuition free, upon certain minor requirements; therefore be it

RESOLVED, That the American Federation of Labor go on record in favor of the junior college as a means of offering opportunity for a higher education to all young people of this nation with limited resources; and be it further

RESOLVED, That the American Federation of Labor promote suitable activities tending to encourage the establishment of such educational facilities throughout the entire nation.

The purpose of this resolution is to extend public education in local communities beyond the high school through the first two years of college. The junior college makes it possible for students to secure two years of their college training in the same manner in which they received their high school education. Such a program makes it possible for the student to secure a college education at a much lower cost both in tuition and in costs of living. Consequently the junior college makes possible a college education for

many students who could not afford otherwise to go to college. The need for extending public education beyond the high school was emphasized by the fact that thousands of students returned to the nation's high schools for graduate work during the years of economic depression.

In a general way the junior college plan is consistent with organized labor's stand over the years in favor of public education in the higher levels. Your Committee therefore recommends concurrence in the general purposes of the resolution; endorsement of the principle of the junior college; and—where local conditions permit—urges affiliated bodies to cooperate with school authorities in establishing and supporting such institutions.



Recent Writings... **JUDGING THE NEW BOOKS**

RODEE, CARLETON CLYMER, TOTTON JAMES ANDERSON, AND CARL QUIMBY CHRISTOL. *Introduction to Political Science* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1957). Pp. xiii + 655. \$6.00.

FERGUSON, JOHN H. AND DEAN E. MCHENRY. *The American System of Government* (4th ed.; New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1956). Pp. x + 757. \$6.75.

These two volumes are among the most recent additions to the growing family of publications of the McGraw-Hill Series in Political Science. Of the pair, Ferguson and McHenry is the more hackneyed, having evolved at least a decade ago, while *Introduction to Political Science* represents a fresh and noteworthy contribution to the field.

The American System of Government, on the one hand, tends to follow the more traditional or conventional approach to the study of American national government. Placing great emphasis on facts and details, it provides an extremely comprehensive survey of the mechanics of government and elaborate descriptions of its

agencies. Beside the material devoted to the federal government, the authors have included a section dealing with state and local administration. In general, the *American System of Government* represents an unabridged version of its counterparts, *Elements of American National Government* and *The American Federal Government*, all by the same authors. The format of Ferguson and McHenry's latest work reflects the recent trend away from the traditionally drab college text and toward the more modern type of high school book, larger in its physical dimensions and replete with photographs, charts, drawings, and the like. Apart from this beautifying feature, the addition of chapter-end review questions, and a general updating, the fourth edition of the *American System of Government* appears to offer little substantive change from its predecessors.

A book of a completely different character is *Introduction to Political Science* by Rodee, et al. Departing radically from the customary texts, this work has much to offer as a truly integrated approach to the study of political science. It was obviously not designed to serve solely as a text in

American national government, in comparative government, nor as a text solely devoted to political philosophy; yet it has succeeded in incorporating and blending these prime elements into a full-bodied survey without injustice to any discipline included. Much to the authors' credit, they have found it possible to accomplish the difficult task of maintaining the delicate balance between theory and practice. *Introduction to Political Science* is thus a book which transcends the compartmentalized approach to the subject of political science, providing instead a broad and thorough survey.

As such, this text meets a definite and long standing need and should be much welcome to political scientists. Its greatest appeal, of course, will presumably be to those engaged in the general introductory course, rather than to those interested in the more specialized offerings. Nevertheless, it has the redeeming feature of unusual versatility because of its immense scope.

Apart from considerations as a text, *Introduction to Political Science* ought to be seen for its value as a library reference and supplementary reading.

ALAN S. ENGEL

SMITH, ROLLAND R. AND JAMES F. ULRICH. *Plane Geometry* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, N. Y.: World Book Co., 1956).

Smith and Ulrich's *Plane Geometry* is a neatly arranged and well-organized 19 chapters of clear definitions, illustrations, and examples, with sufficient exercises to drill the students and with the axioms, postulates, and theorems introduced in an interesting manner. The authors were

aware of the fact that geometry teaches clear thinking and sound reasoning, that it rates high in the training of the human mind, and that demonstration makes things certain.

Realizing that modern life would be impossible without a knowledge of geometry, the authors' first approach is through a chapter entitled, "Conclusions by Measuring," with definite emphasis on the triangles, circles, line segments, angles, perpendicular lines, and bisectors. "Conclusion Without Measurement" deals with the adjacent, supplementary, complementary, and vertical angles.

"The If-Then Relationship" introduces the student to the law of the world in which we live—the results from certain conditions. Deductive reasoning, or drawing conclusions from accepted general statements, is found in the "The Nature of a Geometric Proof," along with acceptable reasons, definitions, specimen proofs, axioms, postulates, and congruent triangles.

Geometric reasoning is further stressed in "Proving Theorems Using Congruent Triangles," where the corollary begins its work, construction problems become a reality, and the converse theorems present their variations. The analytic method of attack is emphasized throughout, and the geometry of three dimensions is introduced so that it can be explained if the teacher desires to show the tie with the plane.

Parallel lines are covered thoroughly, and the difference between Euclidean and Non-Euclidean geometrics is indicated in a chapter devoted entirely to parallels.

Chapter seven deals with interior and exterior angles of triangles and with defi-

nitions of terms relating to polygons along with special theorems for the parallelogram, trapezoid, series of parallel lines, and deductive reasoning through diagram.

The importance of the circle in art and industry is stressed and made more interesting by the color combination used throughout the book in presenting the theorems concerning circles and the tie with the sphere of solid geometry.

Evidently the authors like algebra since many of their proofs are based on algebra and rightly so in most cases, especially with reference to the size of angles formed in or about circles by radii, chords, tangents, secants, or any combination of these polygons inscribed in or circumscribed about circles, and several pages of review algebra are found throughout the book.

Locus is clearly defined and adequately demonstrated through theorems and plotting, with ample exercises to stress the importance of position in satisfying a condition.

Chapter eleven deals with inequalities and indirect proofs with contradictory propositions, absurdity, coincidence, and contrapositive proofs illustrated. Ratio and proportion cannot be stressed too much, and the 28 pages given this study seem adequate and interesting.

Similar polygons, proportions, quadratic equations, radicals, and special triangles followed by interestingly diagrammed chapters on numerical trigonometry, areas of polygons, regular polygons and the circle, geometric constructions, introduction to analytic geometry, and the logical mind at work help to make up one of the best written books on plane geometry in recent years. Interesting statements are used freely to catch the eye of the student as he begins a new study. Challenges

for the better students through extra exercises called "Problems for Peacemakers," optional pages, and word study are good. The optional chapters on geometric constructions, analytic geometry, and logic will also prove helpful to the slower student as he reads and studies the constructions and conditions.

The general plan of the book is excellent. The print and the spacing are good, the diagrams are attractive, and the illustrations are well presented.

EMMETT S. SAMS

SMITH, ROLLAND R. AND JAMES F. ULRICH. *Solid Geometry* (Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1957). Pp. v+266.

Solid Geometry has been written with the primary objectives of the study of solid geometry in mind, namely: (1) the discovery of geometrical truths of three-dimensional space and their establishment by logical methods, (2) the development of the ability to see relationships in space, (3) an extension of the understanding of the nature of logic, and (4) the development of computational skill in the mensuration of common geometrical solids. The authors have provided for the achievement of the foregoing objectives as described briefly in the following paragraphs:

1. *Understanding.* Careful inductive developments of the concepts of solid geometry are a regular instructional technique. Learning through understanding is promoted throughout the book with *Before you study* exercises. All students should work these exercises in order to achieve self-discovery, understanding, and mastery of the course content.

2. *Formality.* Early proofs of theorems and some of the more difficult later ones are shown in full. Other proofs are outlined or suggested through hints provided for the student. Some theorems are marked *proof optional* which may be omitted at the discretion of the teacher. The teacher is thus allowed flexibility in requiring the degree of formality he desires. The meaning and use of the geometric statements should be clear to the student.

3. *Logical Reasoning.* One of the main objectives of the course is continued development in logical thinking. Direct, indirect, and contrapositive proofs are employed. The student is encouraged to investigate converse, inverse, and contrapositive relationships wherever they occur.

4. *Visualization.* Careful attention has been given to training the student in the analysis of three-dimensional space, since clear visualization of spatial relationships is essential to genuine success in solid geometry. A discussion of perspective is introduced in order to acquaint students with the representation of three-dimensional figures in a plane. A page in each chapter entitled, *No Proof Required*, provides students additional and periodic opportunity to check their proficiency in the preception of three-dimensional relationships.

5. *Individual Differences.* The subject matter is organized to provide for individual differences of students. Careful development of topics is provided for everyone. Extra exercises are provided frequently, and supplementary exercises are found at the end of every chapter. *Optional* pages and topics provide superior students with opportunities to broaden and strengthen

their mathematical backgrounds.

6. *Reviews and Tests.* Chapter reviews, cumulative reviews, and tests are provided in the *Chapter Summary* and *Testing Your Understanding* pages at the ends of chapters. Basic skills in arithmetic and algebra are kept alive by means of the *Maintaining Skills* pages.

7. *Special Features.* The style of the pages constantly emphasizes to the student the mathematical system with which he is dealing. Definitions, theorems, corollaries, and postulates are conspicuously marked. A combined *Teacher's Manual and Key* is available.

The titles of the nine chapters in the textbook are as follows:

1. Thinking in Three Dimensions, 2. Perpendicular Lines and Planes, 3. Parallel Lines and Planes, 4. Dihedral and Polyhedral Angles, 8. Spheres, and 9. Spherical Polygons—Spherical Volumes. In addition, there are: Axioms and Definitions, Syllabus (Plane Geometry), Formulas, Tables, and Index.

The authors have constantly kept in mind the primary objectives of the course in solid geometry and have made a splendid achievement in meeting these goals. The text contains all of the essential principles and theorems of the subject of solid geometry, and the organization and presentation of the various topics are logical and sound in arrangement. The book has many attractive and commendable qualities, such as: the degree of formality of proofs of theorems, *Before you study exercises*, various challenging problems, reviews, and tests. It is indeed well written and fundamental in its coverage.

J. V. HOWELL

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